

# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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HON. FRANKLIN K. LANE, SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR, WHO REPRESENTED THE PRESIDENT AT THE OPENING, ON FEBRUARY 20th, OF THE PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION AT SAN FRANCISCO

Before President Roosevelt brought him to Washington to make his fine seven-years' record on the Interstate Commerce Commission, Secretary Lane had served his adopted city of San Francisco in high offices, and was California's most typical Democratic leader. Since President Wilson was detained at Washington, it was especially fitting that Mr. Lane should have represented him at the opening of the Exposition. His power and felicity in public speech are not less marked than his wisdom and efficiency in dealing with the many complex problems of his Department.



# THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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## THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*"Bread,"—  
the Demand  
and Supply*

Never before, perhaps, has the word "bread" appeared so frequently in the newspapers as since the beginning of the present year. This is due to the disturbed conditions of trade, rather than to any marked alteration in the factors of demand and supply. The food crops of 1914 were large, and except for small areas they were successfully harvested. The number of people to be fed is not greater by reason of the war, but on the contrary it grows perceptibly less, while the merely wasteful and extravagant uses of food material have been greatly limited. Europe is now entering upon the eighth month of the great war. In any case, in peace or in war, Europe would, through those eight months and through three or four months yet to come, have had to rely upon the cereals produced in 1914 for its supply of breadstuffs.

*Ease of  
Normal Distri-  
bution*

What, then, has produced the conditions that have been so alarmingly set forth in the newspapers? In ordinary times, the process of distribution goes on evenly and without being brought to the public mind. The European workman, whose standard loaf, whether of dark bread or of white bread, is his foremost food article, has not been accustomed to the thought of a failing supply or an increasing price. The world's surpluses of wheat, rye, and barley enter with the most perfect ease and mobility into the ramifying currents of international trade. A bad crop in one country is atoned for by a good one elsewhere. Thus Europe's industrial worker has seldom known any difference as regards the supply of his daily bread. The ordinary rates of ocean freight on cereals from the United States and Canada, Argentina, India, and Australia, are very low; while in normal times the rye, barley, and wheat of Russia, Hungary, and eastern Europe move readily and constantly by coastwise steamer, river and canal barges, and the railroad network, to the more densely peopled industrial regions of southern and western Europe.

*Conditions in  
Russia, Eng-  
land, France*

But since the war broke out the traffic systems have been paralyzed, and the markets greatly deranged. Throughout the vast Russian Empire there has been an ample supply of food, with a low tendency of price. This is because of the shutting off of the German market, and the difficulties in exporting grain surpluses,—due to hostile conditions in the Baltic on one side and the Black Sea on the other. Great Britain is most dependent; but the British navy has hitherto made it easy for merchant ships to bring food supplies to England from all quarters of the globe, so that the situation as to supply and price has been virtually normal. Very little complaint has come from France about scarcity of bread,—or, indeed, about anything else. Thus far there has been no apprehension of food shortage in any one of the three large allied powers.

*Belgiums' Need  
of Food*

The most acute trouble has been in Belgium. This has been due to the various misfortunes that attend the ravages of war on a great scale. Large supplies of food were requisitioned by the armies. Other supplies were destroyed through the burning of houses, barns, and stacks of grain. Horses were largely drawn into military service, and other farm animals were to a great extent slaughtered for food. The stoppage of industry destroyed the earning capacity of hundreds of thousands of people, who were thus rendered unable to buy food, even if the military conditions had not interfered with the bringing in of commercial supplies. Under these circumstances, the demand for bread in Belgium grew desperate; and so it has come to pass that a very large part of the population has lately been sustained by the relief from the United States that has taken on an organized and systematic form, as already described in this REVIEW. Most positive assurance is given by the Americans having most to do with this relief that the German military and civil authorities in Belgium have not failed to coop-



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## THE BREAD LINE AT MALINES, BELGIUM

(The people of Malines waiting in line before the Commissary of Police to receive each a loaf of bread)

erate, and that nothing sent for the aid of the Belgian people has been turned to German benefit.

*Belgian  
Recuperation*

It must be remembered that populations can adapt themselves to unwelcome situations; and it would be quite erroneous to suppose that seven million Belgians are remaining in a state of unspeakable misery, doing nothing to help themselves, and appealing to the charity of the world. On the contrary, they are helping themselves and one another to the utmost of their ability, and they are waiting for spring to open in order to resume the cultivation of their lands and to produce as large supplies of vegetables and grain as they possibly can. It is to be observed that they have German encouragement in this course. They will be very much handicapped by shortage of horses and other farm animals, but they will doubtless produce large food supplies this year, many unemployed factory-workers turning their energies to garden and field. It is said that somehow the Belgians managed, in the autumn, to sow considerable areas of the winter wheat and other cereals that will be ready for harvest in early summer. Belgium will doubtless need help for some time, but when the war cloud is lifted and her industries can be set in motion again she will pay her own way without much difficulty,—easily buying the surplus foods that her people may need. The German occupation seems likely to continue for a time.

*Poland's  
Distress*

There are other spots ravaged by war where there is food shortage and distress. The conditions in these places are somewhat analogous to those produced in San Francisco by the great fire, or in a central district of Italy, in January, by the earthquake. Thus Poland has seen so much marching and counter-marching of armies, with destruction of hundreds of villages and thousands of farms, that many of the people are in great distress, although it would be impossible to believe in the accuracy of an extended statement issued by the Polish author, Sienkiewicz, in the middle of February, from his vantage-point in Switzerland, purporting to give exact statistics as to the condition and needs of fifteen million Poles. The allegations of fact in that appeal to America were upon their face less credible than the most extravagant pleas that have been issued on behalf of Belgium. Doubtless the condition of the Polish people is bad enough; and it justly appeals to the sympathy and aid of the world.

*Seeds and  
Tools for  
Serbia*

More credible are the claims to sympathy and help that are made on behalf of the people of Serbia. They have shown great heroism and have put forth a degree of energy in resisting invasion that nobody had thought possible. Their needs have been none too strongly stated, and the current appeals through committees headed by Professor Pupin and Madame Grouitch are worthy of prompt response.

Madame Grouitch, in particular, has asked Americans to help the thousands of small Servian farmers by furnishing means to obtain a supply of seeds and tools for their spring work. The best form of help is that which enables willing workers to help themselves. Supplies in Servia have run so short that without assistance the people will find it impossible to obtain that prime necessity of farm regions,—the seed with which to invite the forces of nature to grant their kindly co-operation. Even in times of peace we have often had crop shortages in the West that have made it necessary for the State itself to advance to farmers the requisite supply of seed-wheat and seed-corn for the next crop. It is not strange, then, that Servia should ask for seed after so terrible a struggle as that in which she is still engaged, following the two severe wars that had only recently preceded. A letter to this REVIEW from a distinguished Montenegrin statesman informs us that in his little country there is also great distress; and if some share of American bounty should go to those brave and undaunted people who are fighting with Servia it would be most worthily bestowed.



DR. IVAN YOVITCHÉVITCH, SECRETARY-GENERAL OF THE COUNCIL OF STATE OF MONTENEGRO

(This high official and publicist writes us that there is great distress among the common people of Montenegro, who lack for bread and clothing. His interesting estimate of the war and its outcome will be found in this number of the REVIEW)

**Food in Austria-Hungary**

When, however, the whole field is surveyed, it is not possible to discover any great shortage of food; and severe distress seems to be limited to ravaged localities, such as Belgium, Servia, and Poland. Hungary is one vast granary, and except in Galicia the Austro-Hungarian Empire has not as yet suffered vicissitudes that have added the pangs and suffering of famine to the general sorrow and misery of war. On the contrary, there seems to have been thus far no shortage of food in that empire, nor any serious prospect of that kind. Wheat has been going to Austria from Italy, in exchange for lumber to use in constructing temporary houses in the earthquake region. But what of the terrible privations of the starving millions of Germany,—about which a vast deal has appeared in the American and English newspapers?

**Germany's Food Supply**

The hypothesis that Germany is desperately suffering for food had become the more significant last month because it lay at the base of diplomatic contentions. It was supposed to underlie the new and harsh declarations of beligerent policy that formed the chief topic in the American and European press. Regular readers will remember that in our November number we published an important contribu-

tion from Professor Carver (of Harvard University and of the Department of Agriculture), on the European food situation. Mr. Carver, after a careful survey of available facts, came to the conclusion that all of the countries engaged in the war could maintain necessary supplies of starchy food, though they might suffer some shortage of other kinds. He reached the conclusion that Germany and Austria would probably have no serious trouble in providing as much food as was needful, both for civilians and soldiers. Dr. Dernburg, in a companion article, presented in the same number of the REVIEW, wrote of Germany's food supply and undertook to show that for a period of at least two years Germany would be able to cope successfully with the problem of self-maintenance. He chose the period of two years, because he preferred to deal with concrete facts rather than with predictions or general estimates.

**Does Germany Lack Bread?**

It becomes interesting to know whether anything had happened in three months to disturb the best calculations of the experts of our own Department of Agriculture, or to subvert the statements and assurances of Dr. Dernburg. The newspapers have somehow given many American readers the impression that Ger-

many's fate was depending upon the decision of an English prize court in the matter of allowing the food cargo of the *Wilhelmina* to proceed to its destination. This impression had been added to by the manner in which the German Government's new control over breadstuffs had been made to appear as indicating the approach of famine conditions. So far as we can ascertain, nothing has happened to weaken in any respect the statements and predictions made in our articles by Professor Carver and Dr. Dernburg. Everything in Germany is now virtually upon a governmental basis, including the production and distribution of necessities for civilian as well as military use.

*The "War  
Wheat  
Company"*

On January 11, for instance, all Prussian flour mills were ordered to make and sell only a mixture known as "war flour," containing seven parts wheat and three parts rye. The Government of Prussia had formed a trading concern known as the War Wheat Company, which was to buy up and store about seventy-five million bushels of wheat, to be held back from sale until after May 15. The shares of the company were taken by the Prussian Government, the principal German cities, and some large industrial concerns. This company is permitted to pay 5 per cent. interest, and it has power to buy stocks of wheat, either by voluntary transfer or by condemnation at fair price. The whole object is to benefit the public by preventing undue speculation in wheat during the months that must precede the harvesting of the next crop. The German authorities explain that there is a very ample supply of rye in storage, and some shortage of wheat. Thus the bakeries are required to bake rye bread at night for the supply of the working people in the morning, and they bake the "war flour" bread and rolls in the daytime for those accustomed to white bread. This is not an indication of desperate conditions in Germany, but rather an instance of that foresight and thrift with which German officialdom is accustomed to handle affairs of common concern.

*Civilian  
Rather than  
Military*

The English and American idea that this action of the associated municipal bodies of Germany in forming the "War Wheat Company" has militarized food supply, and has therefore given the quality of contraband to all cereals destined for Germany even though shipped in neutral vessels, seems to us to be wholly mistaken and without justification. There had

been no evidence to show that the wheat carried by the *Wilhelmina* would become a part of the grain that was being purchased for distribution after May 15. The municipal governments, in conjunction with the Prussian Government and business concerns, were not acting on behalf of the military authorities, but rather on behalf of the whole mass of common people, whose bread supply was thus assured. The flour mills and the bakers were to be supplied at fair prices after May 15, and the Government's action was intended to have a salutary effect upon all those who were storing and hoarding food supplies, with a view to exorbitant profits in the months that must elapse before the crop of 1915 becomes available. Instead of giving a military character to the bread supply, this German action seems to us to have given it a decidedly civilian guarantee. The wheat company is formed upon the plan of our own administration's ship purchase project.

*This Year's  
Crop in  
Germany*

But what of the coming crop in Germany? So far as we can learn, there was exceptional effort made, under direction of the public au-



ON ACCOUNT OF THE SHORTAGE OF FLOUR!  
"The bakers until further notice will bake only air doughnuts."

(This cartoon is from the latest copy of *Kikeriki*, of Vienna, and it may be assumed that its tone would not be so cheerful and humorous if the bread shortage had become desperate.)

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Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York

#### TURNING PARADE GROUNDS INTO PEOPLE'S GARDENS

(This scene shows the plowing-up of the great army drill and parade ground near Berlin, as the first step in preparing it for the spring planting of vegetable gardens and potato patches by the poorer citizens. This may be taken as typical of what is going on around all of the German cities, where thousands of acres will be converted into gardens within the next few weeks)

thorities and patriotic societies, to see that the fall planting of wheat and other cereals was not neglected. Except in a part of East Prussia, there was no interference with German agricultural processes. Some kinds of manufacturing were curtailed, and many of the men thus thrown out of employment were sent to the fields to take the places of those who had been called to arms. Women and children in great numbers are accustomed to work in the fields in Germany. Furthermore, prisoners of war to the extent of many scores of thousands were assigned to farm work of one kind or another. Doubtless in Germany, as elsewhere in Europe, there is a shortage of horses and domestic animals. But it seems to be true that more traction machinery than ever before has been brought into use. There are great expanses of agricultural land in France, Belgium, and Germany that lie level enough to render it feasible to use traction plows. Nothing could be more mistaken than the notion that practically all farming operations in those countries are intensive and on a very small scale, so that heavy machinery cannot be used. Europe's fields will not lie fallow in 1915.

Very particular attention has been devoted in Germany to plans for thrifty gardening in the neighborhood of towns and cities, and to the obtaining of food supplies for human beings and farm animals from the stretches of sugar-

beet land which have ordinarily furnished the English people with a great part of their sugar supply. Thus, so far as our best information goes, the German people, considered as a whole, are not suffering for bread and are carefully conserving their supplies of cereals to prevent the danger of their having any days or weeks of famine fear or food panic. Naturally, they are willing to pay American prices and import a certain amount of grain as an insurance against the unforeseen. For nobody can say as yet whether the crops of 1915 in any given country may be unusually bountiful or exceptionally meager and lean. The chances are that war conditions will have diminished the use of suitable fertilizers and lowered the average of skill and care in the selection of seeds and the successive processes of cultivation. Yields per acre, therefore, are likely to be a little less than the average. But the sum total of products immediately available as food supply may prove to be the largest in the history of Germany. No one, indeed, can tell what new portions of the face of agricultural Europe may be trampled under foot of vast and ruthless armies, and ruined by hundreds of miles of trenches before the harvests of 1915 are garnered. It is in these terrible hazards of war, even more than in the uncertainties of nature's response, that the food problems of particular countries are fraught with grave concern to those most interested.

*Gardening  
and Thrifty  
Foresight*

*American  
Crop Prospects*

What, then, of our own agricultural prospects in America? It has been assumed on all hands that,—favorable weather conditions being granted,—we shall produce the greatest food crops in our history, and that the farmers will receive very high prices for everything that they can raise. Assertions of this kind have generally been made, and they have met with little if any contradiction. First, then, as to the quantities: The forecasts are all favorable. In the winter-wheat belt, high prices stimulated increased acreage in the sowing time last fall, and indications are that the hardy little covering of green, which always thrives best under a blanket of snow, has borne the winter's freezing and thawing fairly well. In the northern, or spring wheat belt,—including Minnesota, the Dakotas, and the Canadian Northwest,—preparations are making for as large a wheat acreage as possible. The yields and prices of the 1914 crop have justified the grain farmers in buying fertilizers and trying to stimulate a large yield.

*Will High  
Prices  
Prevail?*

With favoring conditions of weather, we may expect, therefore, very large crops of all the cereals. It is not so certain, however, that

high prices will be maintained. The spurt which has sent the price of wheat so high in the past few weeks is not due to a shortage of breadstuffs or to famine conditions anywhere. It is due to those factors that are termed "psychological." Just as soon as market conditions become a little more normal, it would seem to us that food prices must tumble rapidly. For the prospect is that there will be a large supply, over against which there will be a diminished purchasing power which amounts to a lessening of the effective demand. The real facts of food supply have not justified the recent high prices of wheat; and there has been no intrinsic reason for the advance in the price of the standard loaf from five cents to six cents that was made by the leading bakers of New York in the middle of last month. In spite of the great shipments out of America's bumper wheat crop to England and other parts of Europe, there had remained an abundance of grain for home consumption until well after the great Kansas harvest will have begun to enter the market.

*Wheat Is Now  
Unreasonably  
High*

If our institutions of general and municipal government were like those of Germany, nothing would have been easier than the public acquisition of



Photograph by Medem Photo Service

## AN ILLUSTRATION OF CURRENT GERMAN THRIFT

(In Berlin, public wagons are passing through the tenement districts, exchanging kindling wood for the potato parings from the kitchens. This is another instance, not of distress, but of minute organization and careful foresight. The potato parings are useful for making alcohol, which in Germany is a substitute for gasoline.)

an ample supply of wheat at a fair price.—and this without much affecting the average price that the farmers have received. It must be remembered that last year's wheat crop was largely sold from the fields, at the time of harvesting or thrashing, to elevator companies and grain dealers who control the long lines of elevators that follow the railroad tracks into the wheat regions. Very lucky are those farmers who have averaged a dollar a bushel on last year's wheat. Most of the difference has gone to those who have bought up and controlled large quantities, exercising their mastery through the possession of the storage elevators, or grain warehouses. There was much talk last month,—and, indeed, there were bills introduced in Congress and in State legislatures, as well as ordinances in city councils,—concerning the control of speculation in foodstuffs, and the artificial forcing-up of prices by methods known as "cornering." There ought, of course, to be some sort of remedy; but ordinarily the market adjusts itself fairly well.

#### *Some Farm Problems*

As regards various kinds of food supply, it is unduly difficult and expensive for American producers and consumers to come together. Those who are discouraged, however, should remember that conditions are incomparably better in this respect than they were in earlier times. The population of our cities and manufacturing districts has grown with immense rapidity, and the food supplies of the world are drawn upon to meet the demand of great population centers, like New York, for example. The supply of such articles as breadstuffs comes to be standardized, and the transportation rates are no more than the railroads ought to receive. The farmer's problem, as respects wheat, corn, and standard crops, is one of yield rather than of price. Thus the average yield per acre of winter wheat in this country is about 15 bushels, and of spring wheat about 17 bushels, whereas in England, France, and Germany the yield is very much larger. The average seems to be increasing a very little in this country, rather than falling off.

#### *Our Farming Remains "Extensive"*

Secretary Houston, in his admirable and statesmanlike report for last year, comforts us by making the following observations:

It can scarcely be that the American farmer has not as much intelligence as the farmer of other nations. It is true that the American farmer does not produce as much per acre as the farmer in a number of civilized nations, but production



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SECRETARY HOUSTON AT HIS DESK IN THE AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT AT WASHINGTON

per acre is not the American standard. The standard is the amount of produce for each person engaged in agriculture, and by this test the American farmer appears to be from two to six times as efficient as most of his competitors. Relatively speaking, extensive farming is still economically the sound program in our agriculture, but now it is becoming increasingly apparent that the aim must be, while maintaining supremacy in production for each person, to establish supremacy in production for each acre. The continued solution of the problem here suggested is one which now seriously engages the attention not only of the agricultural agencies of the several States but also of the Federal Government.

Only those who have occasion to read the agricultural press and examine the countless bulletins of the Department at Washington and the experiment stations in the various States, can even faintly realize the efforts that are being made to improve American agriculture by obtaining better average results, while maintaining the fertility of the soil. We are publishing in this number of the REVIEW some articles that indicate the kind of work that is going on.

#### *Illustrations of Progress*

Thus Mr. Powell, of the Agricultural College of Illinois, writes of the improvement of the wheat crop through the breeding and use of the best kinds of seeds. Such experiments are carried

on with great patience, and in the end they are worth millions to our farmers. We have at former times called attention to the largely increased yield of corn under favored circumstances, due to the new knowledge that has been widely disseminated regarding the breeding and selection of seed. We are also publishing an article in this issue by Professor Fraser of the dairy department of the Illinois College of Agriculture, which presents the conditions of dairy-farming as they now exist throughout the country. Here again the farmers are immeasurably indebted to the Department of Agriculture at Washington and to the demonstrations made on the farms of the State agricultural colleges for the kind of guidance that is bringing about a vast change in a farm industry that has of late been so greatly developed in Denmark, Switzerland, England, and parts of our own country. Another of our contributors explains the methods by which the Government, through the Bureau of Animal Industry at Washington, spends millions in helping to deal with the diseases of farm animals. It might be easy to show that for every million spent by the Government there is saved to the resources of the country a value fifty or a hundred times as great. The foot-and-mouth disease, tuberculosis in cows, the ravages of hog cholera, the "Texas fever,"—these are some of the great scourges which are only kept from sweeping across the country with appalling consequences through the scientific knowledge and the vigilant methods of our public authorities.

Cotton  
and the  
Farmers

One of the reforms in American agriculture that the authorities have most urgently preached for years has been a greater diversity of farming in the South. But cotton production is a system by itself, and it has been very hard to transform the Southern cotton-grower into the type of the independent Northern and Middle Western farmer who rotates his crops, keeps a variety of livestock, has a good garden and small fruit, and is not overwhelmed by the failure of any particular crop in a given season. The South has perhaps needed the terrible lesson it has received in the sudden fall of the cotton price last fall to a point below the cost of production. Mr. Spillane, who at that time wrote so notable an article for this REVIEW on the cotton crisis, writes for this number upon cotton's recovery. The prospect of a much-reduced acreage, as the cotton-growers are now soon to plant the crop, will be noted with especial interest.

Dr. Houston  
on the  
South's Needs

More than any other portion of the civilized world, our own South needs to learn the lesson and acquire the habits of agricultural thrift. Secretary Houston's report deals with these matters in the most instructive and convincing way. He shows that American poultry products alone are worth half a billion dollars a year, or 50 per cent. of the total value of the cotton crop. And he declares that the South enjoys unusual opportunities for producing its own supply of swine and poultry, yet the present deficiency is marked. Take the following, for example, from the Secretary's readable report:

While in Iowa the average farm has 6 milch cows, in North Carolina and Alabama it has less than 2, and in South Carolina 1. While in Iowa the average farm has 35 hogs, in North Carolina and Alabama it has less than 5, and in South Carolina less than 4. While in Iowa the average farm has more than 108 head of poultry, in North Carolina and Alabama it has less than 20, and in South Carolina less than 17. An investigator has recently said that the average farm home in Georgia produces less than 2 eggs a week; about two-thirds of an ounce of butter and two-thirds of a pint of milk a day; one-third of a hog, one-twelfth of a beef, and one one-hundredth of a sheep a year for each member of the family; and that the cotton crop of the State does not pay the State's food and feed bill. No Southern State is giving sufficient attention to the production of foodstuffs either for human beings or for live stock. A conservative estimate indicates that Texas imports from other States annually more than \$50,000,000 worth of wheat, corn, and oats; Georgia more than \$24,000,000; South Carolina more than \$20,000,000. Twelve Southern States import more than \$175,000,000 worth of these three commodities and \$48,000,000 worth of meats, dairy products, and poultry products. It may be admitted that most of these States should not undertake the production of these commodities for foreign or interstate shipment in competition with the great States of the Middle West, but every student of the subject must recognize the unwisdom of the neglect to produce enough of these things for the consumption of their people and for the laying of the foundation of a prosperous live-stock development.

Improvement  
Well  
Begun

In short, the important thing is to turn the ordinary cotton-raiser into a real farmer. Already, however, the worst is past. The great campaign of farm demonstration carried on in the South by the Department of Agriculture and the General Education Board has produced appreciable results. Thousands of boys in the so-called "corn clubs" are proving that with the right kind of farming the average yield per acre can be not merely doubled but increased fourfold. Thousands of girls in the "canning clubs" are learning the value of practical gardening in connection with

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farm homes. The State agricultural colleges are now carrying on a propaganda of practical reform; and in a number of the States agriculture has been introduced as a necessary subject in the common schools. The high prices of land in the Middle West have made it profitable once more to bring back to fertility the impoverished and abandoned farms of the older States of the East and Southeast.

*Large Crops,  
Lower Prices,  
Probable*

Viewing the immediate situation, therefore, whether in the United States, Canada, South America, Asia, or Europe, it is plain that the year 1915 is to witness the most exceptional efforts to produce the largest supplies of breadstuffs, vegetables, and fruits,—as well as poultry, swine, and other kinds of food,—that the world has ever known. War conditions and industrial paralysis, on the other hand, will reduce purchasing power,—that is to say, will render the demand for food less effective in the commercial sense. Just how to reconcile these broad facts with the general prediction that very high prices are to be maintained has not yet been set forth.

*The Causes  
of Speculation*

The speculative and anxious character of the food market last month was simply due to fear as regards the possible closing of some of the larger avenues of commerce. England was obviously dependent upon keeping the seas open in order to obtain her future food supply; and preferred to pay high prices for grain now in sight in order to keep reserves on hand, rather than to let her stock run low with the idea of buying cheaply in the late summer and fall. As for Germany, while her need for food from the outside was less urgent, it was the dictate of common prudence to ship in as much wheat as possible, and to demand the right to obtain food at all times for her civilian population when brought in neutral ships. These conditions greatly stimulated export in January and February, and favored those speculative performances in the United States that kept the price of wheat abnormally high.

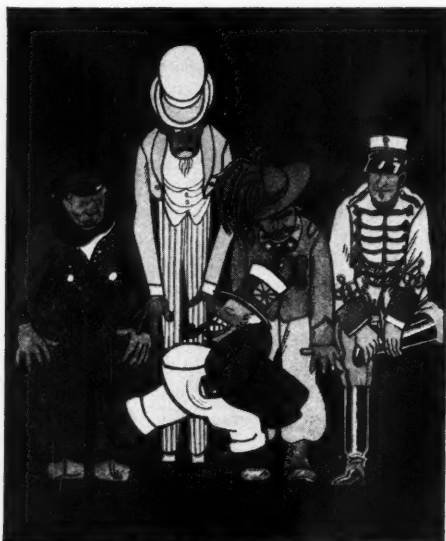
*Crowding  
Neutrals Off  
the Sea*

Ever since the outbreak of the war, the tendency on the part of the belligerents to trespass upon the rights of neutrals has been increasing. Beginning with Germany's outrageous violation of Belgium, there has been little regard for the principles of international law whether on land or on sea. The situation is in many respects similar to that which em-

broiled our Government with France and with England in the days of the Napoleonic struggles, and that led us into the second war with England when we had barely escaped a war with France. At the very beginning of the war our Government should have brought together the chief neutral powers having commerce or ships affected by the struggle, and a common course of action should have been agreed upon. It is true that case after case of arbitrary seizure was called to the attention of the British Government; but it was not until high-handed courses had become habitual that our Government sent its elaborate note on the subject of so-called "contraband." It is not necessary to find any fault with the belligerent governments. They are engaged in a stupendous struggle, and are not doing any intentional wrong to neutrals. It is the business of neutrals to keep away from the fringes of trouble, if they can, but to know their rights and to insist upon them with firmness, good temper, and the least possible indulgence in formal and argumentative "notes."

*We Have Small  
Concern in the  
North Sea*

Holland, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden have vastly more commercial shipping at stake than belongs to us. The rights of neutral merchant ships in the North Sea may be of some theoretical concern to us, but of very little practical moment. Our trade with Europe is in no way dependent upon ships flying the American flag. When, therefore, the German Government warned neutral powers that there might be much danger after February 18 in the English Channel and the waters adjacent to the British Islands, we were very slightly affected in a practical way. Norway, Holland, Denmark, and Sweden were very much more directly concerned. The best possible advice to American ship-owners would have been, "Keep out of the danger zones till the situation clears up, and be thankful for your mercies!" For fifty years we have had no merchant shipping, to speak of, entering European waters; and we should be extraordinary fools to be forcing ourselves in at the one moment when sensible people would be glad to keep out. We had great and legitimate interests in Mexico, which we were instructed to abandon in order that our country might not be embroiled. We have no shipping interests in the North Sea or the waters around Great Britain that are of any relative importance; and we have no occasion to become embroiled either with Great Britain or with Germany.



THE PRIZE-TAKER [A GERMAN VIEW OF JOHN BULL]

"How long will the neutral nations allow this brutal fellow to tread upon their corns."  
From *Lustige Blätter* © (Berlin)

*A Word About "Contraband"*

Since the ordinary reader cannot possibly keep track of the diplomatic correspondence, with the warnings, threats, and counter-threats of the belligerents, a few simple words may help to make more clear the nature of the controversy. It all comes from strained and improper definitions of contraband. Munitions of war and articles intended for the direct maintenance and supply of armies and navies are called "contraband," and are subject to seizure at sea when destined to a belligerent port. Private citizens in neutral countries have a right to sell and ship contraband supplies to any purchaser, on the chance of their arrival. England buys huge quantities of contraband in the United States, because the German navy is bottled up and England can get the stuff into her own ports. Germany buys no contraband from us, because the English navy vigilantly overhauls all merchant ships that are supposed to be carrying such wares. There are other articles known as "conditional contraband." For a time England held up cargoes of cotton intended for Germany. This was an abuse of the doctrine of contraband, and England finally yielded to our protests. Gasoline and copper are other articles which England treats as contraband if destined for Germany. Cargoes of such wares were regularly held up, even though destined for neutral countries like Italy, on the ground that they might subse-

quently be shipped from those neutral countries into Germany. This was going very far.

*Wheat Now Made Contraband*

England's position on such points has been disputed and attacked by our Government, but without much avail. There are some things, however, that are never properly contraband, —most important among which are ordinary supplies of food intended for the civil population of a country. On February 2, England made the extraordinary announcement that she would not permit neutral ships to carry wheat to Germany. This upon its face was a most flagrant violation of the rights of neutrals and the established principles of international law. England's excuse was that there were reports of the assumption of governmental control over food supplies in Germany, and that this might fairly be regarded as giving the character of contraband to all food imports. Such an inference was both far-fetched and hasty. We have already explained, in previous paragraphs, the nature of the German Government's oversight of food supplies.

*A Mistaken Policy*

Even our own Government seemed to overlook the essential point by failing to understand the internal situation in Germany. It is plain on a moment's thought that the German Government could not have had the slightest object in announcing a food monopoly, if such action would have justified England in treating wheat destined for Hamburg or Bremen as contraband. As a matter of fact, there was no more right or justice in England's stigmatizing as contraband the wheat destined for Germany, than in Germany's so stigmatizing the wheat that is constantly entering the port of Liverpool. The German reply took the form of an announcement that if England would not allow the German people to import food in neutral ships, it would become the policy of Germany, after February 18, to try to prevent the importing of food into England. In theory and principle the propositions were not unlike. The actual difference lay in the fact that England's navy could easily overhaul all ships making for German ports, while Germany could only retaliate by threatening to strike at merchant ships with torpedoes from submarines, or to render British waters dangerous by scattering mines. We have been accused, from month to month, by our German-sympathizing readers with being pro-British. We pay no attention to such charges,

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"If you

because our readers well know that we have endeavored to present the truth. Perhaps some of our English-sympathizing friends will now charge us with being pro-German when we express the view that the English Government was hasty and erroneous in its mandate against the carrying of wheat in neutral ships to German ports for use of the civilian population. Such wheat could not be contraband unless it were shown plainly that it was intended for the use of the army. The British position was technical and arbitrary.

Although the German declaration stated that the submarine campaign against merchant ships would not begin until February 18, there was much excitement; and on February 6 the *Lusitania* (the great Cunard passenger liner, outbound from New York) crossed the Irish Sea and entered Liverpool harbor flying the American flag as a ruse. Our State Department prepared two notes, which it sent at the same time in order to seem to keep its neutral balance. One was sent to England, protesting against the use of the American flag on English merchant ships in their endeavor to escape destruction from torpedoes, even though they might be carrying American passengers and goods. It does not seem



SAFETY FIRST  
From the *World* (New York)

to us that our Government's position was particularly sound, or that there was any occasion for protest. Any unarmed merchant ship engaged in its usual and proper business would fall short of its duty to save life and property if it neglected any method whatsoever by which it might escape destruction. The use of a neutral flag under such circumstances violates no rule of international law, harms nobody, and reflects no dishonor upon the borrowed flag, but rather the contrary. Such practises have been recognized as wholly proper from time immemorial.



IF  
"If you can keep your head while all about you are losing theirs—"

From the *Sun* (New York)

—Kipling

Our Note  
to  
Germany

Our second note was to Germany, and, while in the form of words it was courteous, it came little short of being an ultimatum in its purport. It warned Germany that no mistakes must be made, and that American ships were not to be sunk in the open seas merely because Germany had chosen to designate certain great expanses of the ocean as a war zone. Germany had not, of course, claimed any right to exclude neutral ships, but had given warning that mines and torpedoes would create fresh hazards, and that the route around the north of Scotland would be safer and better. Germany's position was plainly wrong, and her statement of it was offensive. The United States was justified in giving counterwarning, though the simpler communications of the European neu-

trials constitute better diplomacy than our proneness to the writing of lawyers' briefs and arguments.

*The Really  
Important  
Incident*

Our chief diplomatic mistake lay in calling England's attention to the wrong thing. The *Lusitania's* use of the American flag was not entitled to a moment's passing notice by the State Department. But the actual seizure of the American ship *Wilhelmina*, together with her cargo of wheat destined for Germany, called for the clearest kind of statement upon a wrongful interference with our commerce. The seizing of a non-contraband cargo in a ship whose neutral registry is of unquestioned validity is a much more serious incident than all of the cotton, copper, and other contraband incidents put together that formed the basis of our elaborate and ill-received note to the British Government of December 28. Yet, even in all this, German diplomacy was to some extent at fault, because for several days it did not explain the civilian nature of the German food monopoly, and did not make it clear even to neutral America that food importations would be used strictly for civilian needs.

*A Blockade  
the Proper  
Device*

There was, indeed, one way by which England could lawfully keep neutral ships from entering German ports for any purpose whatsoever; and that was by declaring a blockade of the German coast and proceeding to make such blockade reasonably effective. It is hard to

understand why such a blockade had not been declared, as respects at least a portion of the coast, several months ago. England's sea power is so great that her declared blockade would not be regarded by any neutral country as a merely "paper" affair; and blockade-runners would take their own risks and have no claim upon protection of any government. The German submarine threats did not amount to a blockade in the international-law sense, because Germany's submarine fleet is not large enough to form a patrol of the hundreds of miles of British seacoast; so that no neutral government could be asked to respect such a declaration. Finally, these situations are all very distressing and lamentable. But our own Government and people have no real occasion to be mixed up in the turmoil along the British and German coasts. "Watchful waiting" is a phrase that might well be applied to all these maritime problems. The war is a life-and-death matter for the great powers that are engaged in it. For us, as regards these topics of diplomatic discussion, the war at worst is a mere inconvenience. Neither duty nor advantage calls us abroad.

*Party Strife  
at  
Washington*

Nothing since the outbreak of the European war has been fraught with so much danger to the welfare of the United States as the almost insane spirit of controversy that took possession of those in authority at Washington last month. "Filibusters," "dead-locks," all-night sessions, turned the Senate into a bear garden. In times of great emergency, it is not usual for governments to flaunt partisanship. On the outbreak of war, cabinets were quite generally reorganized in Europe, in order to make them national rather than partisan. This was done not merely by the countries engaged in war, but also by a number of the neutral powers. Besides the rearrangement of cabinets, the plan was formed of calling into council, in all matters of importance, the leaders of opposition elements in the legislative bodies. Thus in England, Lord Kitchener was called into the cabinet with full authority over the military situation; and all measures have been taken with the unanimous support of all parties in the House of Commons. This was illustrated in the granting of unlimited credits to the government by Parliament last month, for the further costs of the army and navy, or whatever relates to the war. In France there has been such harmony as the country had never known before, and it may fairly be said that no Frenchman,—whether



"CATCH AS CATCH CAN"  
From the Tribune (South Bend)



in the cabinet, the legislative chambers, or the army,—has seemed to be seeking his own glory or aspiring to anything except the service of France.

#### Harmony Needed

In the neutral countries of Europe there has been the utmost effort to make government action responsive to the general sentiment as expressed through the public leaders of all parties. In the opening weeks of the war there seemed to be a reasonable prospect that partisanship would be restrained, even if not obliterated, at Washington. A number of measures were entered upon in a patriotic spirit, without much controversy. As the war has progressed, the reasons for solid and united support of American policies have not grown less. The difficulties of our maritime position as the foremost neutral country have increased in consequence of the fact that the war has proved less swift and decisive than was generally expected, so that questions of trade and commerce have become more vitally involved than could well have been foreseen. These are questions which, in their very nature, demand treatment on their merits, with the largest possible concurrence of judgment and support, and with no showing of party lines or political maneuvering.

#### Reasons for a United Front

And this is for two reasons that are general, and one that is special. The general reasons are (1) that delicate foreign policies are involved, and no country should present party divisions to the outside world; while (2) purely business interests are at stake, and these cannot by any chance be either Republican or Democratic in their complexion. These two reasons would apply at any time. Even if the world were at peace, we ought not to make party quarrels out of questions having to do with the movement of our commerce with foreign countries, or its treatment by foreign governments. But there remains the simple fact that the leading commercial nations are engaged in the most

colossal and deadly war of all history. This constitutes the special reason why the decisions and policies of our government at Washington ought to be wholly free from party motive or spirit. They ought to be entered upon only after the utmost striving to find grounds of agreement, even to the point of complete unanimity. In the face of a world crisis so profound and serious, the situation at Washington last month was nothing less than appalling in its show of recklessness.



Photograph by Harris & Ewing

SENATOR FLETCHER OF FLORIDA

(Who led the supporters of the Administration's Ship Purchase measures, in committee and on the floor of the Senate throughout the deadlocked sessions)

#### The Real Work of Congress

The regular business of the session of Congress was the thorough consideration of a series of great bills, providing for the expenditure of about one thousand million dollars, while also dealing with the probable shortage of revenue. Congress in the last session had promptly acquiesced in the proposal to levy extensive war taxes; but in spite of these new sources there promises to be a shortage, due principally to the falling off in the tariff duties on imported goods. The passing of the appropriation bills always involves much more than the mere granting of money, because there must needs be debate upon the domestic policies involved in the expenditures. For example, the country has regarded it as a matter of prime importance, in connection with the army expenditures, that the authorities at Washington should work out, in a spirit of agreement, an

improved system of national defense. It is never possible to pass the navy supply bill without a reopening of the question how many, and what kind of, ships ought to be built from year to year. There was particular reason just now for bringing together the best judgment and experience of all wise leaders in an endeavor to lift the naval policy above partisanship and adapt it in every way to the situation that faces the country. There were many other problems associated with the supply bills that were more than sufficient to occupy the entire time and attention of Congress. The present session must expire on March 4 because on that

date are ended the terms for which all members of the House, and one-third of the members of the Senate, have been elected.

*No Time for  
Contested  
Measures*

It was not, therefore, desirable that Congress should occupy itself at great length with any other measures, although there were various bills of importance that had been previously considered and might fairly have been brought to a vote, in one house or in both, as a matter of common consent. It was manifestly not a time in which a bitterly controversial measure that involved new and untried ideas could be properly held to have an importance superseding everything else, —unless the project commanded the support of a large and clear majority, so that it could truthfully be said that its prompt passage was prevented only by the filibustering of a small minority that was taking undue advantage of parliamentary privileges to obstruct the course of legislation. It cannot be said, however, that the Ship Purchase bill was of this character. We are not at this moment speaking of its possible merits. It is of the proceedings in the United States Senate with relation to this bill that we are occupied here. A measure that had no party character in its very nature, was made the occasion of the most intense and bitter party fight of forty years.

*The Ship  
Purchase  
Bill*

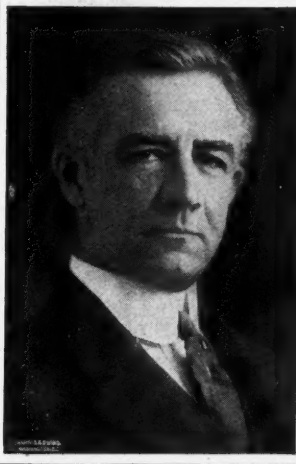
In the previous session there had been introduced in both Houses bills authorizing the Government to form a company for the purchase and operation of mercantile ships. It was quite generally understood that the Administration had formed a tentative plan for buying some of the numerous fine German passenger and freight ships that were lying idle in our harbors by reason of the menace of the British navy. It was thought that if our Government itself bought these ships no one could make the accusation that the transfer was evasive or in bad faith, and that we could push them into our trade,—with South America, if not with Europe,—so that with the opening of the Panama Canal we should have made a large beginning towards a new American merchant marine. The idea was a brilliant one if workable. Its motives were unquestionably patriotic. But so novel a measure, and one so profoundly important in its bearings, could not safely be enacted into law unless thoroughly considered in all its aspects and strongly supported by statesmen as well as by public opinion.

*"Filibuster  
and  
Deadlock*

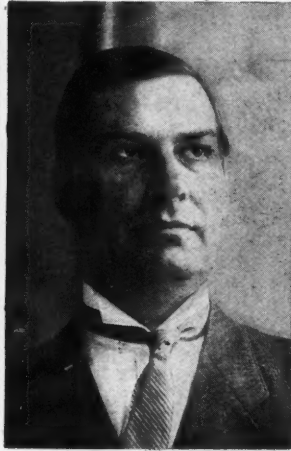
If the entire body of Democrats in the Senate had been willing to obey the caucus decision, stand together, and follow the lead of the President as "captain of the team," the Republican filibuster would have been somehow overcome, and the bill would have been passed in some shape. But to the great dismay and surprise of Senator Fletcher of Florida who was managing the bill, seven Democrats broke away at the critical moment and this resulted in a virtual tie of the Senate. For the first time in almost twenty years every Senator was in his seat and on duty. Up to a certain point, Senator LaFollette of Wisconsin, Senator Kenyon of Iowa, and Senator Norris of Nebraska, acted with the Democrats in favor of the Ship Purchase bill. The leaders had consented to some modifications of the measure, in order to obtain the support of Messrs. Norris and Kenyon. With seven Democrats opposed to the bill, and these three Republicans favoring it, the division was 48 to 48. By every known trick in the parliamentary game, and by sheer physical endurance tests, with all-night sessions, and individual speeches running continuously in some cases for from ten to fourteen hours, it was sought for a number of days to break the deadlock. Meanwhile, a puzzled public asked what it was all about.

*The  
Country's  
Loss*

It is needless here to recount the details. The thing to note is that the country needs the collective wisdom of the Senate in a period like the present, and that it gets nobody's wisdom when the Senators are engaged in a desperate, deadlocked fight. Contrary to the opinion of some people, the Senate is an exceedingly able body. Its membership to-day averages better in legal knowledge and statesmanlike qualities than at almost any previous moment in our history. There are excellent men on both sides of the chamber. The cabinet is also made up of patriotic and able men, several of whom are of marked sagacity and business knowledge. The President's patriotism and high attributes of intelligence and leadership are universally conceded. The country has been entitled to expect that at this time, of all times in our history, such men would lay aside political wrangling, in the face of a troubled and desperate world. There is nothing whatever in this Ship Purchase bill that could not be much better dealt with by the plan of non-contentious, careful study with a view to agreement. Controversial methods of dealing with it have only



© Harris & Ewing  
GILBERT M. HITCHCOCK  
(Democrat, Nebraska)



Photograph by Bain  
WESLEY L. JONES  
(Republican, Washington)



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JOHN W. WEEKS  
(Republican, Massachusetts)

### THREE SENATORS PROMINENT IN THE OPPOSITION TO THE ADMINISTRATION'S SHIP PURCHASE LEGISLATION

(Senator Hitchcock was one of the seven Democrats who refused to support the Administration. Senator Jones earned the distinction of making the longest speech, talking nearly fourteen hours. Senator Weeks was the author of a bill which the Administration leaders amended so radically in the House as to make it serve their purposes as a compromise)

confused the public, so that neither its faults nor its merits have been rightly understood.

Points  
of the  
Bill

Carried  
in the  
House

The hard fight had been made first in the Senate, because it was known that Democratic leadership could pass any bill through the House that had been determined upon in the other chamber. But when the deadlock in the Senate could not be broken, the plan of campaign was changed and a bill was hastily put through the other house, although without much enthusiasm. Senator Weeks of Massachusetts, one of the foremost opponents of the Democratic bill, had previously been able to pass through the Senate a bill of a much more moderate character, authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to use such vessels as might be available for carrying mails, passengers, and freight upon routes to South America or to Europe as should prove necessary. This bill remained on the calendar of the other house. The Democrats decided to use the Weeks bill as a basis, and to amend it in such a way as to embody the main points of the Government's program. This was actually done, and the bill was forced through the House under a rule providing for six hours debate. The vote came early on the morning of February 17, 215 members favoring and 122 opposing. All of the Republicans present voted against the bill, as did nineteen Democrats.

March—2

The measure as thus passed provides for a government shipping board, to buy and operate merchant ships until two years after the end of the European war. The maximum investment is expected to be about \$50,000,000. The ships are to be transferred to the Navy when the board goes out of business, and the Secretary of the Navy may lease to private shippers such vessels as are not needed for transport or other naval purposes. It was hoped by the Democrats that this measure, coming back to the Senate from the House, might have a favorable parliamentary position and be forced to a vote, with Vice-President Marshall breaking the deadlock if his vote were needed. Meanwhile, there had been charges that Government officials had been unduly interested in the purchase of the interned German ships, while on the other hand there were counter-charges to the effect that a lobby representing existing steamship lines had been working at Washington against the Administration's bill. A committee of Senators was appointed to investigate these scandalous rumors. It is permissible to say that there had not seemed to be any ground for the accusations on either side. The Administration had been favoring the bill for public reasons, as Secretaries Redfield and McAdoo were, of course, readily able to show. On the other hand, Senators were not opposing the bill through



Photograph by American Press Association, New York  
SENATOR NORRIS, OF NEBRASKA

(Senators Norris, Kenyon, and La Follette refused on February 17 to accept the Ship Purchase bill as amended and passed in the other house, because they favored a permanent Government merchant marine. Their abandonment of the Democrats changed the majority and prevented the bill from going to conference committee.)

any inducements offered by shipping interests. As for the purchase of interned ships, it had come to be quite unlikely that a Government shipping board would buy vessels owned in any of the belligerent countries, unless it had been learned through diplomatic channels that no objections would be raised.

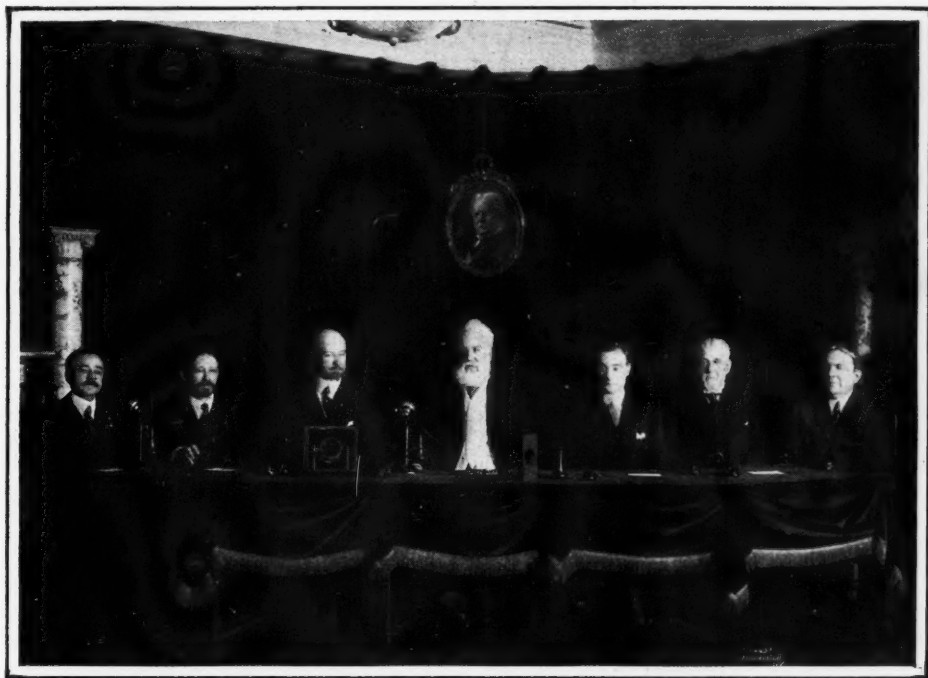
*Again the Senate Rules!* The struggle in the Senate called attention once more to the need of rules for the regulation of debate. Some plan ought to be devised to obviate on the one hand peremptory action under caucus rule by a bare majority, and on the other hand the practise of filibustering on the part of a minority through the abuse of the privilege of unlimited debate. It is fair to say that a number of the speeches in the Senate were of remarkable ability and value; but no one pretends that the extremely

long speeches were for any other purpose than to prevent a vote. Senator Norris of Nebraska has taken the lead in an endeavor to provide a way for finding a reasonable limit, and ending such situations as were created last month when the Senators camped out upon cots in cloak rooms and committee rooms, ready to rush into the chamber if a roll call was ordered, while Senator Jones of Washington or some other long-distance orator, talked all night without a human being listening and with only two or three Senators, acting as pickets, lounging in the Senate chamber. Nothing of this kind is possible in any other great parliamentary body in the entire world. The House of Representatives now does business, as a rule, without real debate. The Senate must continue to deliberate, but it ought not to filibuster. A reasonable plan for protecting the Senate against its own excesses can certainly be worked out and adopted.

*Affairs in  
Our Hemisphere*

Their hopes of passing the Ship Purchase bill having been frustrated on the 17th by the refusal of the three progressive Republicans to support them, the Democratic leaders consented to take up the appropriation bills that had come to the Senate from the other house. The Naval bill, for instance, had been sent over with a total appropriation of nearly \$147,000,000. It called for two new battleships of the first class, eleven submarines, and half a million dollars for naval aircraft. The Senate will change it in various particulars. It is to be noted that late in January the plan of passing the Immigration bill over President Wilson's veto narrowly failed to obtain the necessary two-thirds vote in the House, the test showing 261 for and 136 against overriding the veto. The policy of "watchful waiting" at Washington, as respects Mexico, had continued without change, Mr. Duval West, of San Antonio, having been sent by the President to represent him and report upon the views of the leaders. The struggle between the followers of Carranza and Villa was going on last month without indication of conclusive results. The South American countries were gaining in prosperity and strongly urging a united policy of protection for Western Hemisphere commerce against belligerent aggressions. The opening of the great fair at San Francisco was attracting attention to an enterprise that had not been delayed or modified by reason of the war. Canadian energy continues to expend itself without stint in war effort.





DR. ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL, WITH GUESTS, ON OCCASION OF THE FIRST TRANS-CONTINENTAL TELEPHONE CONVERSATION, IN THE OFFICES OF THE AMERICAN TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH CO., NEW YORK

(From left to right: Chief Engineer John J. Carty, of the Telephone Company; Hon. George McAneny, President of the New York Board of Aldermen; Vice-President U. N. Bethell, of the Telephone Company; Dr. Bell (under the portrait of President Theodore N. Vail, of the Telephone Company); Mayor Mitchel, of New York; President C. E. Yost, of the Nebraska Telephone Company, and Controller W. A. Prendergast, of New York)

*Telephoning  
Across the  
Continent*

"Mr. Watson, are you there?" said Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, in New York, on January 25 last. "Indeed I am," came the clear reply from Mr. Thomas W. Watson in San Francisco; and with these two simple sentences was opened the first transcontinental conversation over the telephone. The total distance was thirty-six hundred miles. And then connection was successfully made between President Vail, of the telephone company, at Jekyll Island, off the coast of Georgia, to San Francisco, by way of New York,—a distance of 4300 miles,—and then by way of Boston, a distance of 4750 miles. It was these same two men,—Alexander Graham Bell and Thomas W. Watson,—who first used the telephone in their rooms in a boarding house in Boston thirty-nine years ago. Since then the system of wire communication has steadily advanced. Beginning in 1876 with the first line, two miles long, between Boston and Cambridge, New York was linked to Boston in 1884, and then other cities Westward, until now the Metropolis is on speaking terms with the Golden Gate. Various elements contributed importantly

to the success of this historic event. The invention, some years ago, by Professor Michael I. Pupin of a "loading coil," doing away with the distortion of current waves as well as the "relaying" device for amplifying or revivifying the current at various points invented by Mr. Peter Cooper Hewitt, both had a vital bearing on the development of long distance telephony. Not a little credit is also due to the work of Mr. John J. Carty and Mr. Bancroft Gherardi, engineers of the Telephone Company, for the necessary perfection of the physical plant.

*Cross-Ocean  
Wireless Speech  
Coming!*

But even greater achievements are promised. The human voice is already being transmitted over considerable distances without the use of wires. Last month this feat was performed from a moving train on the Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western Railroad over a space of twenty-six miles; while in a test made on the Pacific Coast, wireless conversation was said to have been successfully carried on over a distance of 721 miles. Both Professor Pupin and Mr. Hewitt have predicted that we shall soon be able to talk across the ocean.

*The  
Active  
Airmen*

Forty aeroplanes, British and French, engaged in a simultaneous raid of destruction against the German bases in Belgium on February 16. And a few days before, thirty-four machines had flown on a similar expedition. The bomb-dropping air raids indulged in by both the Germans and the Allies between points in Belgium and Dunkirk and Calais in the north of France have been very frequent. These operations bring strikingly to public attention the activities of the airmen in the war. And exceedingly active they have been ever since hostilities began. Five thousand aeroplanes, more or less, and over a hundred dirigible balloons have been traversing the air lanes over every part of the entire War Zone—in Belgium, France, Germany, Austria, Russia, and the Balkans; even in Africa, and in China, over Tsing-Tau, before that place surrendered. In all climates and in all kinds of weather, day and night, the scouts of the air have been busy. The value of aerial reconnaissance has proved incalculable, eliminating the element of surprise from military operations. Only last month, when von Hindenberg, in East Prussia, had all but surrounded a Russian army, the alert eyes of the Russian airmen discovered the enveloping movement in time to prevent complete annihilation. The discovery of the enemy's batteries and the directing of artillery fire in these days of long-range guns and clever methods of concealment have made the aviator the eye of the "man behind the gun." Each time he prevents the waste of a single shot from a big gun he saves the cost of his aeroplane. And the usefulness of the aircraft is being gradually extended. For instance, at Craonne, last month, aviators prepared the way for a French charge by dropping bombs on the Germans and completely demoralizing them.

*Japan  
and  
China*

It was reported from Peking late in January that as a sequel of the taking of Kiao-chau and the expulsion of Germany from Chinese territory, Japan had presented certain demands to the government of China. It was understood that Japan asked China for the transfer of concessions formerly held by Germany and Austria, the opening of various rivers to foreign navigation, and also certain railway and mining concessions. The government at Tokio announced, however, that the proposals made to China "contained nothing of a nature to disturb the territorial integrity of China or anything conflicting with the spheres of

influence now enjoyed by other powers in China." Negotiations between the two governments continued at Peking until the middle of February, when it was reported that all of the Japanese demands, twenty-one in number, had been rejected by China. Japan's attitude is approved in England and looked upon as merely an attempt to obtain a definite settlement of outstanding claims. Meanwhile, the cordiality of the relations between the United States and Japan has been emphasized by meetings held in Japan, which were addressed by Professor Shailer Mathews, of the University of Chicago, and Professor Sidney L. Gulick, of New York, who represent the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America. Governor Johnson, of California, has announced his opposition to any effort to reopen the question of the alien land law in the California legislature.

*Chicago to  
Elect a  
Mayor*

Not content with overtopping by two years his father's record of ten years as Mayor of Chicago, Carter H. Harrison II sought the Democratic nomination again last month in the primaries. Mr. Harrison was first elected in 1897, serving four two-year terms and voluntarily retiring in 1905. In 1911 he became a candidate again, and was elected for a four-year term which is just now drawing to a close. His principal opponent in the Democratic primary last month was Robert M. Sweitzer, whose strength consisted of an excellent record as County Clerk and the active support of Roger Sullivan. The Republican nomination was solicited by William H. Thompson, a wealthy sportsman affiliated with the Lorimer faction, and by Harry Olson, who has been Chief Justice of the great Municipal Court since it was established in 1906. These pages were closed for the press too soon to give the results of the primaries of February 23. The first trial of Chicago's primary law (four years ago) was pronounced a success by political reformers, for it resulted in the defeat of the "regular" candidates of both parties. The present campaign has been replete with acrimonious discussion, on the platform and in the press, indulged in by practically all the candidates. The women of the city are for the first time participating in a mayoralty election. Some of them have sought to investigate social conditions; and their findings have naturally hurt only the incumbent, Mayor Harrison,—out of all proportion to his responsibility in the matters criticized.

*Woman  
Suffrage  
East, South*

The scene of woman-suffrage activity has suddenly shifted from the West to the East. In the four great commonwealths of Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania the legislatures are submitting woman-suffrage amendments to the voters. It had been necessary in each case to have favorable action by two successive legislatures, and the measures were all on their second passage. When these notes were written, favorable and final action had been taken in New York, Massachusetts, and New Jersey; and in Pennsylvania the measure had been passed by one house and was being favorably considered in the other. In the legislatures of all these States there has of late been little if any opposition. It is not to be denied that the suffrage workers have won a great victory, after a long fight, in getting the measures out of the legislatures; but the cynically inclined see many evidences of the desire of the legislators to shift the burden to the voters. The suffragists,—with the possible exception of the most sanguine,—will themselves be surprised, next fall, if a majority of the male voters of even one of the great Eastern States favor the doubling of the electorate. Woman-suffrage has also made notable gains in the South within recent weeks. The legislatures of Arkansas, West Virginia, and Tennessee all have ratified, by fair majorities, resolutions for the submission of constitutional amendments. In Tennessee a second passage is required, but West Virginia will vote upon the proposition in 1916, and Arkansas probably in 1917.

*Further  
Prohibition  
Gains*

It has seemed feasible and appropriate for us, from time to time during recent months, to chronicle the advance of prohibition movements in various sections of the country. In the December issue, for instance, we noted the adoption of statewide prohibition by the voters of Washington, Oregon, Arizona, and Colorado,—the culmination of long and arduous campaigns in each State. Arkansas has now found it possible to enforce prohibition by a much quicker method,—simply through legislative enactment,—and has done it so quietly as to attract little attention without her own borders. The measure was passed by the House on February 1, by the Senate on the 5th, and on the following day it was signed by Governor Hays. It will go into effect on January 1, 1916, and Arkansas will become the fifteenth prohibition State. "Dry" amendments have also been adopted

by the upper houses of the legislatures of Iowa, Montana, and Utah, with excellent prospects for passage in the lower branches. Iowa will probably enforce prohibition by statute pending the required second passage through the legislature and the submission of a constitutional amendment to the voters, a procedure which takes several years.

*Unemployment:  
A National  
Problem*

The emergency of the past winter has found the country quite as unprepared to cope with the evil of unemployment as it would have been in the event of foreign war to defend itself against any first-class power. It is only within the past year or two that any great number of citizens outside the ranks of social workers has become seriously interested in the problem of finding work for the workless. It is not strange that there has been, thus far, a failure to agree upon any general remedial program. In some of the States marked progress has been made in organizing and improving public labor bureaus, State and municipal. At the same time there is a growing feeling in the country that the Federal Government itself must establish a national bureau that will, in some degree, control the entire situation. It will take time, however, to bring this to pass, and early in the winter it became clear that immediate relief in some form would be demanded in all of our great cities and in many of the smaller towns and villages throughout the country.

*A Serious  
Situation*

Inquiries made by the *Survey*, of New York, in seventeen of our largest cities showed that there had been in December an increase of applications to charitable societies ranging from 30 to 100 per cent. over the same period last year. With such conditions confronting them, city officials and charity workers could not wait to get together on any platform that involved the starting of new national machinery, but were compelled to adopt practical relief measures varying with the special needs of each locality. Besides, the problem as it presented itself was more than one of organization or machinery. For the man without work the employment bureau could be of no service unless there was a job that it could connect him with. At the beginning of the winter it seemed in many cities that the shortage of jobs was so serious as to amount to far more than a merely transitory condition. In many employments there simply was no work and no prospect of work for months to come.

**Public Works**

The old way of meeting a crisis of this kind was to provide relief funds in the form of cash, and to distribute these as judiciously as possible among the families made destitute by unemployment. This method has never had the approval of intelligent students of the problem, and in the recent emergency it was almost universally discarded. Only one large city, Philadelphia, voted public money to be used in this way, the emergency relief fund of \$50,000 being disbursed there by the Emergency Aid Committee, which was composed entirely of women. In other cities where appropriations have been made from the public funds attempts have been made to provide work to be paid for at a living wage. The city of Chicago, for example, kept all its Public Works employees at work much longer than in ordinary years, carried out extra park development work and extra street widening, and began the construction of school buildings that would ordinarily have been put over until spring. The Park Board of Minneapolis, for the sake of employing men whose families were in distress, started the clearing of a strip of lowland soon to be flooded by the building of a dam in the Mississippi. Cincinnati is putting hundreds of men to work on the new water-works loop and high-pressure fire service. The State of Massachusetts is undertaking the reclamation of wet lands, and has appropriated \$50,000 for immediate expenditure.

**Private Employers**

At the best, however, city and State governments can employ only a comparatively small number from the swollen ranks of the out-of-works. Private employers must take the chief part of the burden in times like this. Thus the Pennsylvania and allied railroad systems now building great terminals in Chicago are able, by advancing the beginning of the building operations, to give work to 12,000 men. There are not many instances like this, but throughout the country corporations and individuals, by undertaking work in the winter instead of waiting for spring, have been able to give employment in the aggregate to many thousands of workers who would otherwise have been without work throughout the winter. It is this fact that makes the outlook at the end of February for the country in general far more bright than it was at the end of December. To aid the emergency work in New York, Colonel Roosevelt generously gave \$10,000 from the Nobel Peace Prize money awarded him in 1906.

**New Leadership**

In any review of the winter's experience regarding unemployment three facts stand out: (1) the tendency everywhere to look upon the problem of unemployment as a big national question demanding the ablest statesmanship of our day; (2) the disposition to solve the special problem in each locality by the most direct and practical method, that is, by providing work instead of money; (3) the calling out in many communities of the best available talent for dealing with this problem, as instanced by Judge Elbert H. Gary's activities as chairman of the Mayor's Committee in New York and by the Chicago City Industrial Commission, headed by Professor Charles R. Henderson, and including representatives of the Harvester Works, the packing companies, the Western Electric, the Crane Company, the railroads, the building trades, and the Chicago Federation of Labor. The influence of these bodies has done much to induce employers to continue half-time labor where otherwise there would have been wholesale discharges.

**Industrial Relations Hearings**

During the month of January and the first half of February the Industrial Relations Commission held a series of hearings in New York City which attracted the attention of the country to an unusual degree because of the prominence of several of the men who were subpoenaed by the commission to answer its questions. Two purposes seemed to be in view in the holding of these hearings,—first, obtaining the views of well-known capitalists and publicists on the relations of capital and labor; and, second, an inquiry into the aims and methods of several of the great foundations recently organized and endowed for educational and humanitarian objects. As regards the first of these purposes, the opinions of "captains of industry" and "money kings" are always of interest; and in eliciting these the commission was, in a measure, successful. As to the second purpose of the hearing very little was disclosed that had not already been well known to the general public beyond the fact that such institutions as the Rockefeller, Carnegie, and Sage foundations, the General Education Board, and other recently formed organizations of this type are officered and conducted, without exception, by the highest type of expert ability that can be commanded in this country, and that their possibilities for good to America and the world at large are practically limitless.

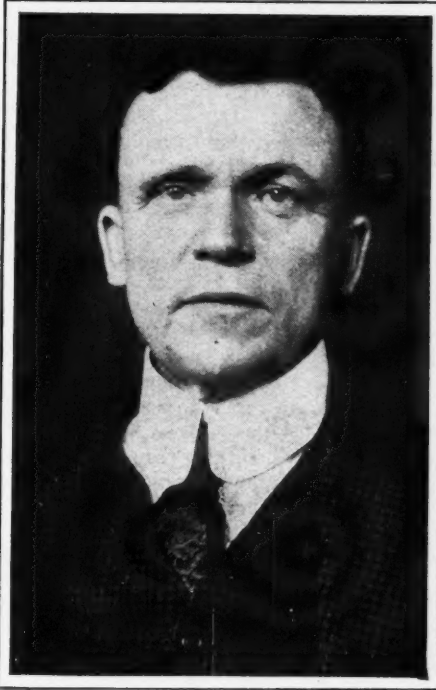


*The Commission's Job* Now that the Industrial Relations Commission has assured itself of these facts, the country

would like to see it turn to some of those specific fields of investigation that were in the minds of those who secured the passage of the law creating it during the Taft administration. In 1913, after President Wilson had appointed the members of the commission, an article contributed to this REVIEW suggested that the commission might find some of its most definite and broadest work in "overhauling our labor departments and correlating the work between States; in developing greater publicity as to sources of employment in terms of work; in standardizing public minimums as to safety, hours, wages, and other conditions; and in developing machinery for mediation and arbitration and in advancing the bargaining that goes on about those minimums." Several of the commissioners appointed by President Wilson are known to be peculiarly qualified by years of study and experience to pursue just these lines of inquiry. There is a feeling that if they should be permitted to do this, the public interest would be better served and the Government's money more wisely expended than by holding repeated series of hearings on subjects that relate only remotely to these specific problems. It was stated last month by Chairman Walsh that the commission would begin at Chicago an investigation of the relations of transportation companies to their employees and that later Pittsburgh would be visited. Perhaps more concrete and useful results may now be hoped for.

*Western Water Freight*

In connection with the development of Panama Canal traffic,—a topic discussed in this magazine by Miss Laut last month,—it is interesting to note that one of the gulf ports, Galveston, was last year second only to New York in export and import tonnage. That the Mississippi Valley is alive to Panama trade opportunities is shown by the interest taken in the building of standardized terminals for the handling of freight on the Missouri and Mississippi rivers. Minneapolis, New Orleans, and Kansas City have already constructed good terminals, while smaller towns, like Davenport and Quincy, are building shore works, and the city of St. Louis has comprehensive plans. As an effort toward the restoration of inland waterway transportation, a meeting for the purpose of organizing this terminal movement was held in St. Louis last month.



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CHAIRMAN FRANK P. WALSH OF THE INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS COMMISSION, WHICH HAS HELD HEARINGS IN NEW YORK AND CHICAGO

*A New "Long and Short-Haul" Decision*

On February 10, the Interstate Commerce Commission made a new decision in the so-called "Intermountain" rate question that appears to be very important, measured in policy. In direct financial results to the railroads the ruling is not of large consequence, affecting, as it does, only certain specified commodities. This intermountain rate question concerned the right of the transcontinental railroads to charge a decidedly higher freight rate from, for instance, New York to Reno, Nevada, than from New York to San Francisco. The rate practise had been to make the charge from New York to Reno greater than that for the longer haul from New York to San Francisco by the amount of the regular charge back from San Francisco to the interior point. The simple justification for this practise, at first glance, so anomalous, was that the transcontinental road had to meet the competition of water routes when shipments were made through to San Francisco, and rates were made to that point which would secure the traffic for the railroad.

*History of the  
Intermountain  
Case*

In 1911 the Interstate Commerce Commission, having in the previous year been empowered by Congress to fix railroad rates, issued a ruling changing the practise described above. Theoretically it seemed, indeed, unjust that these intermountain points should be charged rates decidedly higher than those for the much longer haul to the Pacific Coast. The Commission set to work to make a very elaborate arrangement of rates based on considerations of theoretical justice rather than of business expediency. Its ruling of 1911 divided the country into five longitudinal zones, the rate in each being based on a percentage of the rates in the other zones. The net effect of this new plan would have been to force the roads, when they met water competition to Pacific Coast points, to reduce concordantly the rates to intermountain points to figures which they considered unprofitable. The roads appealed to the Commerce Court, which gave a decision in their favor; but the Supreme Court, in June, 1914, affirmed that the Commerce Commission was, under the 1910 amendment to the Interstate Commerce Act, within its rights.

*Water Competition  
Via  
Panama*

In the present ruling,—which, technicalities aside, allows the railroads to reduce their rates to Pacific Coast points without at the same time making ruinous reductions to interior points,—the Commerce Commission recognizes the new conditions imposed by competition with the Panama route, as well as the alarming general decrease in railroad revenues and the impairment of railroad credit. Although the net addition to the revenues of the roads will not be great, the decision has extreme importance in the recognition by the Commission of the necessity the railroads are under to make their rates under some flexible system which will meet the business conditions confronting them. Earlier the Commission had apparently had in mind an attempt to make over the vast and intricate structure of tariff schedules on some theoretical principle of evening up opportunities for every town in the country. The movement is, indeed, some step in the direction of the much-maligned principle of charging what the traffic will bear. Many business men, and thoughtful observers generally, have been tending toward the belief that, after all, this principle is the only practicable basic guide to rate making. It is recognized and used even by the government-owned railroads of Germany and other European countries, where scientific theory and systematic harmony might

well have been expected to produce a better principle if such there is.

*The State of  
Business*

The passing of the dividend on the common stock of the United States Steel Corporation came as a surprise to the financial community and caused some setback in the advance of security prices on the American exchanges. This, the greatest industrial corporation in the world, had in the last three months of 1914 the worst financial quarter in its existence. In the quarter just passed it was true, indeed, that a considerable deficit for the period was shown after paying dividends even on the preferred shares. Many other evidences appear of a real depression in trade,—(1) record failures in business; (2) great numbers of people out of employment; (3) a sharp decline in bank clearings in spite of high commodity prices; (4) the heavy decline in railroad earnings, and (5) very low building records.

*Signs of Better  
Things*

While conservative observers scarcely hope for any boom in trade amid the present unprecedented world conditions, there are some evidences of recovery from the worst of the depression. The United States is piling up a favorable balance of trade at a rate of something like \$150,000,000 a month. This results from record exportations of wheat and cotton, with the wheat going at the highest prices in history; from sales of other food supplies and of clothing material to Europe in great quantities at high prices, and from exportations of ammunition, ordinance, and other war materials and supplies, such as horses, automobiles, motor trucks, aeroplanes, and barb wire. In a period of reduced imports, this phenomenal movement could not but give a huge balance of trade in our favor. By the middle of February, some cheering news had come from the steel mills, the great plant at Gary going into operation after many months of idleness. The large issue of bonds by the Pennsylvania Railroad was immediately and heavily over-subscribed, and the still larger issue of debentures by the New York Central was placed satisfactorily. The banks of the country have come into an exceptionally secure position, the Federal Reserve law is working so well that no more banking panics such as we had in 1893 and 1907 may be expected, and the psychological factor in business has obviously changed for the better, so that merchants and manufacturers are now looking confidently for better things.

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A FRENCH CARD GAME INTERRUPTED BY A GERMAN AVIATOR: IN THE TRENCHES NEAR RHEIMS

## RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE WAR

(From January 21 to February 17, 1915)

### *The Last Ten Days of January*

January 21.—The United States replies to Germany's note regarding the status of United States consuls in Belgian territory occupied and controlled by Germans; the non-political status of consuls is recognized, and the United States does not question the right of Germany to suspend their exequators.

General von Falkenhayn, Chief of the German General Staff, relinquishes the office of Minister of War, and is succeeded by Gen. Wild von Hohenborn.

January 24.—A naval engagement is fought in the North Sea between powerful fleets of British and German vessels of the battle cruiser type supported by light cruisers and destroyers; the German armored cruiser *Blucher* is sunk; the German fleet, outnumbered 5 to 4, retires and the British abandon the pursuit near German waters.

The United States Government (in an exhaustive letter from Secretary of State Bryan to Chairman Stone of the Foreign Relations Committee of the Senate) categorically denies twenty specific charges, made by German sympathizers, of discrimination against Germany and Austria in international situations arising out of the war.

Boer rebels under Maritz, numbering 1200, are repulsed after an attack on Upington, in Bechuana-land.

January 25.—A German dirigible balloon, of the Zeppelin or Parseval type, is destroyed by Russian gunfire during a bomb-dropping flight over Libau, the Russian port on the Baltic Sea.

La Basse, southwest of Lille, in France, is the scene of German assaults in force upon the British line.

A new Russian offensive movement in East Prussia is begun, north of the scene of the re-

verses of August but with Koenigsberg again as the objective.

January 26.—The German Government orders the seizure, on February 1, of all stocks of corn, wheat, and flour, and forbids business transactions in these commodities; a Government distributing office will be established.

Premier Van der Linden informs the lower house of the Dutch parliament that Holland must maintain its entire army, as at any moment incidents are possible which may render necessary an appeal to arms.

An imperial decree (it is reported) is issued in Austria-Hungary, calling out the entire landsturm, or last-line troops.

January 27.—British forces guarding the Suez Canal come in contact with the advance portion of a Turkish army invading Egypt from the east.

January 28.—Russia reports that the Turkish armies in the Caucasus have resumed their offensive.

January 29.—A German attack, with heavy reinforcements, results in a considerable advance in the Argonne Forest, northwest of Verdun, in France.

January 30.—The torpedoing of three British merchant steamships in the Irish Sea, by a German submarine, indicates an attempt to follow the suggestion of Admiral von Tirpitz and cut off England's food supply.

Russian forces occupy Tabriz, Persia, after defeating Turkish troops in the vicinity.

January 31.—Two British steamers are torpedoed in a second raid by German submarines, in the English Channel.

German forces directed at Warsaw make decided gains at Borjimow, after attacks on the Russian line lasting five weeks.

*The First Week of February*

February 2.—A German-American named Werner Van Horn makes an unsuccessful attempt to blow up with dynamite the bridge across the St. Croix River, connecting the Canadian Pacific and Maine Central Railroads.

Great Britain decides to seize grain and flour shipments to Germany, even if intended for non-combatants, because of the German Government's announced intention to confiscate and regulate the distribution of those commodities.

February 3.—The British Ambassador at Washington formally requests the extradition of Van Horn, who attempted to destroy the international railroad bridge at Vanceboro, Me.; Van Horn appeals to the German Ambassador, claiming immunity as a German officer who has committed merely an act of war and escaped from the enemy.

A Turkish force attempts to cross the Suez Canal, north of Suez, but is repulsed by defense on land and from warships.

February 4.—Germany declares the waters around Great Britain and Ireland to be a war zone, after February 18, and announces that it will destroy every enemy merchant ship found; neutral ships are also warned of hazards and danger.

February 5.—Russian reports declare that fighting at Borjimow, west of Warsaw, is the hardest and bloodiest of the war.

February 6.—The transatlantic liner *Lusitania* (British-owned) passes through the war zone and enters Liverpool harbor flying the American flag as a protection against German submarine attack.

Turkey complies with the Italian demands relating to the Hodeida incident, surrendering the British consul who had been arrested, and saluting the Italian flag.

*The Second Week of February*

February 8.—Premier Asquith informs the House of Commons that the British casualties in the western war zone, up to February 4, were 104,000 killed, wounded, and missing.

The Austro-Hungarian forces in Bukowina, supplemented by more than 100,000 Germans, compel the Russians to draw their lines closer and evacuate a large portion of the province.

An official Austrian report declares that the Russians have been defeated in a battle for the possession of Dukla Pass, in the Carpathians.

The Turkish cruiser *Midirli* (formerly the German cruiser *Breslau*) fires upon the Russian port of Yalta, on the Black Sea; Russian warships retaliate by bombarding Trebizond, a Turkish port.

February 9.—The Russian Duma holds its first session since August 9.

February 10.—The United States Government sends notes to Germany and Great Britain relative to American shipping in the war zone; Germany is advised that it would be a serious and unprecedented breach in the rules of naval warfare if a merchant vessel should be destroyed without first certainly determining its belligerent nationality or the contraband character of its cargo; Great Britain is warned of the serious consequences that may result to American vessels and citizens if the practise of using the American flag on British vessels is continued generally.

The British House of Commons unanimously adopts the army estimates for 3,000,000 men, voting unlimited funds to the Government.

February 11.—The Russian Duma is informed that the war cost Russia, for the five months from August to the end of the year, \$1,555,300,000, or \$7,210,000 a day.

February 12.—Russia announces the retirement, in the face of heavy German reinforcements, of the Russian army invading East Prussia; Germany declares that 26,000 Russians were taken prisoners.

Thirty-four British aeroplanes participate in a bomb-dropping raid upon Belgian coast towns used as strategical centers by the Germans.

The French Chamber of Deputies adopts and sends to the Senate a measure prohibiting the sale of absinthe.

February 13.—President Poincaré signs a measure authorizing an issue of \$200,000,000 national defense bonds.

Large numbers of Albanians cross the border into southern Serbia, occupying several towns and forcing Serbian troops to retire.

*The Third Week of February*

February 15.—Holland sends notes to Germany and Great Britain, regarding neutral shipping and the use of neutral flags, which are similar in argument to those of the United States.

A report of the war relief commission of the Rockefeller Foundation states that 20 per cent. of the 7,000,000 people of Belgium are unable to pay for their bread.

Figures made public at Washington show that American exports of war materials during the last four months of 1914 amounted to \$49,466,092, or more than four times the figures for the same period in the previous year.

February 16.—In a communication transmitted through the American Ambassador at London, Germany offers to withdraw from her intention to war against British merchant vessels if Great Britain will permit the free movement of foodstuffs to the civil population of Germany.

Great Britain seizes and places a guard upon the *Wilhelmina*, an American ship destined for a German port with a cargo of wheat for civilian consumption; the ship had entered Falmouth harbor for safety during stormy weather.

A Servian report declares that the Albanian invaders have been driven back across the frontier.

Germany announces the reoccupation, after a short engagement, of Bielsk and Plock, in Russian Poland.

Austria reports continued progress in forcing the Russians out of Bukowina.

British and French aeroplanes and hydroplanes, forty machines in all, carry out a second bomb-dropping attack upon the German positions along the Belgian coast.

February 17.—Great Britain's second and more complete reply to the American protest against undue interference with American shipping is made public at Washington; it claims a desire and effort to be as lenient as possible with neutral shipping.

Germany declares that more than 50,000 Russians were captured during the recent retreat from East Prussia.





MAKING OUT LISTS OF THE LOST AND THE WOUNDED, THE NUMBERS INDICATING THE DESKS ASSIGNED TO THE VARIOUS REGIMENTS



Photographs by Medem Photo Service

CARD-INDEXING THE PRISONERS ACCORDING TO NATIONALITY—A COLOSSAL TASK, TO JUDGE FROM THE ENORMOUS FIGURES GIVEN IN THE REPORTS

KEEPING SYSTEMATIC RECORD OF THE WOUNDED AND THE PRISONERS IN GERMANY

# RECORD OF OTHER EVENTS

(From January 21 to February 17, 1915)

## PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

January 22.—In the Senate, the Committee on Military Affairs favorably reports measures reorganizing the militia and authorizing the enlistment of 20,000 additional men in the regular army. . . . The House adopts the Army appropriation bill (\$101,000,000).

January 23.—The Senate Democrats, in caucus, amend the Ship Purchase bill and bind themselves to support it.

January 25.—In the Senate, Mr. Root (Rep., N. Y.) for the second time warns against international complications which may be brought on by the enactment of the Ship Purchase bill. . . . In the House, the Pension appropriation bill (\$165,000,000) is reported from committee.

January 28.—In the Senate, Mr. Walsh (Dem., Mont.) defends the Administration's Ship Purchase bill in its international bearings.

January 30.—The Senate adjourns at midnight, after being continuously in session for thirty-seven hours, Republican members maintaining a filibuster to defeat the Ship Purchase bill. . . . In the House, Mr. Mann (Rep., Ill.) forces from the Naval appropriation bill, by a parliamentary objection, the provision for the establishment of a Naval Staff.

February 1.—In the Senate, a revolt of seven Democratic members (who demand amendments which would avoid foreign complications) imperils the Administration's Ship Purchase measure.

February 2.—In the Senate, the Philippines bill is reported from committee, with a recommendation for its immediate passage.

February 3.—In the Senate, the Administration leaders resort to filibustering methods to delay a vote on the Ship Purchase bill, pending the arrival of two absent Democrats and efforts to win over progressive Republicans and recalcitrant Democrats.

February 4.—The House fails to pass the Immigration bill, by the required two-thirds majority, over the President's veto; 261 members vote for the measure and 136 against it.

February 5.—The House passes the Naval appropriation bill (\$114,650,000), retaining the provision for two new battleships but providing for only eleven submarines.

February 8.—In the Senate, the arrival of the two Democratic members who had been absent balances the opposing forces, 48 to 48; the Republicans and insurgent Democrats resume their filibuster to prevent the passage of the Administration's Ship Purchase bill through the deciding vote of the Vice-President.

February 8-10.—The Senate sits in continuous session, dead-locked over the Shipping bill; an adjournment is taken after 52 hours and 10 minutes (a record session), when two progressive Republicans who have supported the measure announce that they will no longer permit it to block other important legislation.

February 13.—The Senate Democrats, in caucus (seven insurgents not being present) agree to press the passage of a special rule limiting debate; meanwhile efforts to pass a ship-purchase measure have been shifted to the House.

February 15.—The House, by vote of 232 to 44, passes a bill offered by Mr. Palmer (Dem., Pa.) prohibiting the interstate shipment of products made by child labor; at a caucus of Democratic members, it is agreed to support a compromise ship-purchase bill.

February 16.—The House adopts a special rule limiting debate to six hours, and passes by vote of 215 to 122 an Administration measure providing for government ownership and operation of merchant ships; 19 Democrats vote with the Republicans against it; the measure takes the form of an amendment to the Weeks naval auxiliary bill which has passed the Senate.

February 17.—In the Senate, the Shipping bill as adopted in the House proves unacceptable to the three progressive Republicans whose support was needed to pass the measure.

## AMERICAN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

January 25.—The United States Supreme Court, in a divided opinion, declares unconstitutional the Kansas statute which prohibited an employer from requiring that an employee should not be a member of a labor union.

January 25-26.—John D. Rockefeller, Jr., explains to the Industrial Relations Commission his own and his father's relations with certain large corporations and with philanthropic organizations which they have endowed.

January 26.—The West Virginia legislature votes by large majorities to submit a woman-suffrage amendment at the 1916 election.

January 28.—President Wilson vetoes the Immigration bill, disapproving of the literacy test and the restrictions which would tend to shut the door to political refugees.

January 29.—The Tennessee House adopts a provision, previously passed by the Senate, for a referendum vote on woman suffrage; passage through the next legislature is necessary.

January 30.—The South Dakota Senate passes a bill, already adopted in the House, abolishing the death penalty.

February 1.—The New Jersey House unanimously adopts, on its second passage through the legislature, the resolution submitting a woman-suffrage amendment to the voters.

February 2.—A special grand jury investigating the riots of last spring in the Colorado coal fields returns indictments against many labor leaders.

February 3.—The New York Assembly unanimously adopts, on its second passage, a resolution submitting a woman-suffrage amendment to the voters. . . . President Wilson addresses the United States Chamber of Commerce, in session at Washington, suggesting amendments to the Anti-Trust

law which would permit American business men to combine for the promotion of foreign trade.

February 4.—At a caucus of Democratic Representatives of the Sixty-fourth Congress, held in Washington, Champ Clark, of Missouri, is renominated as Speaker and Claude W. Kitchin, of North Carolina, is named as floor leader. . . . The New York Senate unanimously approves the woman-suffrage amendment passed by the House; the Massachusetts Senate adopts a woman-suffrage measure on its second passage through the legislature; the North Carolina House rejects a woman-suffrage amendment.

February 5.—The Arkansas Senate, following affirmative action in the House, passes a statewide prohibition measure, to take effect January 1, 1916; the House adopts a woman-suffrage amendment previously passed in the Senate; submission to the voters will necessarily be delayed two years. . . . John D. Rockefeller, Sr., and Andrew Carnegie appear before the Industrial Relations Commission, at the hearings in New York, and testify regarding the philanthropic foundations which they have established.

February 6.—Governor Hays signs the prohibition bill passed by the Arkansas legislature.

February 9.—The Pennsylvania House adopts a measure, on its second passage through the legislature, submitting a woman-suffrage amendment to the voters.

February 10.—The Alabama legislature passes, over the Governor's veto, a bill prohibiting the publication or circulation within the State of newspapers carrying liquor advertisements, and prohibiting circular and billboard advertising of liquor.

February 11.—The Interstate Commerce Commission, recognizing new conditions confronting transcontinental railroads by the opening of the Panama Canal, reverses an earlier ruling and permits railroads to fix lower rates for through traffic to the Pacific Coast than to intermountain points.

February 12.—The Iowa Senate adopts statewide-prohibition and equal-suffrage amendments, and votes to bring about statutory prohibition by repealing the so-called Mule Law.

February 13.—The Interstate Commerce Commission rules that under the Panama Canal Act the Southern Pacific Railroad cannot retain ownership of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company so long as the steamship company maintains a service through the Canal; railroads will be permitted to operate water lines unless actual competition is thereby prevented.

February 16.—The Massachusetts House and the New Jersey Senate adopt woman-suffrage amendments, completing legislative action, to be submitted to the voters in the fall.

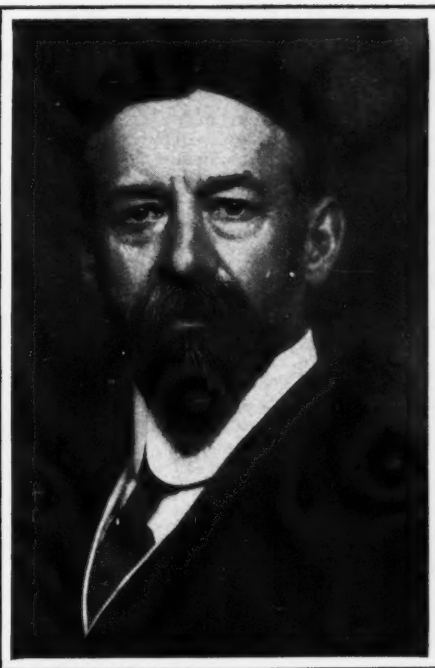
#### FOREIGN POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT

January 25.—The Coutinho ministry in Portugal resigns, and Gen. Pimenta Castro is selected to form a non-partisan cabinet.

January 27.—Provisional President Garza abandons Mexico City with his government and military forces, upon the approach of General Obregon, the Carranza leader.

January 29.—The Peruvian ministry resigns.

January 30.—Lu Cheng-Hsiang becomes Minister of Foreign Affairs in China.



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JAMES CREELMAN

(Mr. Creelman began his journalistic career at the age of twelve, in a printer's shop. He became a reporter on a New York City newspaper, and attracted attention by enterprise and daring. In later years he won fame as an interviewer, as war correspondent, and as newspaper and magazine editor. He died "in harness" last month, at Berlin, in his fifty-sixth year.)

February 1.—It is learned that Gen. Jesus Carranza, a brother of one of the Provisional Presidents of Mexico, has been executed by General Santibanez, who has been leading a revolt on the Isthmus of Tehuantepec.

February 3.—General Villa assumed the executive power in northern Mexico, and appoints a cabinet of three members, with headquarters at Aguascalientes.

#### INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

January 26.—It is reported in Peking that Japan has made demands upon China relating to concessions to foreigners, including the transfer to Japan of all German and Austrian concessions, and a pledge that China shall not in the future grant concessions to any nation except Japan.

February 10.—General Carranza, one of the factional Presidents of Mexico, orders the Spanish minister to leave the country within twenty-four hours, because of alleged refuge given to a Spanish subject accused of aiding Villa.

February 11.—Conferences between representatives of Japan and China, at Peking, are suspended or terminated; the Chinese Government maintains that Japan is exceeding its rights.

February 12.—Representatives of the United States, China, and Holland sign at The Hague the protocol of the anti-opium convention of 1912.

## OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

January 21.—A boiler explosion on the United States armored cruiser *San Diego*, off the Pacific coast of Mexico, causes the death of six sailors.

January 25.—Transcontinental telephone communication becomes a reality, due to improvements in wires and apparatus; in the first conversation across the continent, Alexander Graham Bell (inventor of the original telephone), in New York, talks with Thomas W. Watson, his assistant, in San Francisco.

January 26.—The steamship *Washingtonian*, one of the largest freighters flying the American flag, with a cargo of raw sugar from Honolulu, Hawaii, and the large schooner *Elizabeth Palmer* are sunk after a collision near the Delaware Breakwater.

January 31.—The Japanese cruiser *Asama* runs aground on the coast of Lower California, and is believed to be a total wreck.

February 7.—The Lackawanna Railroad successfully tests a system of communicating by wireless telephone from a moving train to a station.

February 10.—Earthquake, hurricane, and tidal wave cause great destruction of property on Manua Islands, in the American Samoan group. . . . The price of bread in New York City is raised from five to six cents a loaf, because of the high cost of flour.

February 11.—It is learned that 24,200 persons were killed in the recent Italian earthquake; at Avezzano 96 per cent. of the population lost their lives. . . . Father Wladimir Ledochowski, a Russian Pole, is elected to the Generalship of the Society of Jesus.

## OBITUARY

January 21.—Fanny M. Reed, formerly a noted soprano singer, 79.

January 22.—Anna Bartlett Warner ("Amy Lothrop"), author of many novels, 84. . . . Howard M. Hamill, president of the International Sunday School Association and a noted Confederate veteran, 65. . . . David H. Goodell, former Governor of New Hampshire, 80.

January 23.—George James Bryan, the noted anthologist and publisher, 63.

January 24.—Dr. Benjamin Sharp, zoologist and explorer, 56.

January 27.—Dr. James H. Parker, a prominent New York banker and cotton dealer, 72.

January 29.—Cyrus Fogg Brackett, professor emeritus of physics at Princeton University, 82.

January 31.—Dr. Louis A. Rodenstein, a prominent New York surgeon. . . . Leon Revillon, the New York fur merchant.

February 2.—John Patterson Grant, a prominent Richmond banker, 84.

February 3.—Alban Jasper Connant, noted for his oil portraits of Lincoln, 94.

February 4.—Dr. Franz Adickes, former Mayor of Frankfurt, Germany, and founder of the University of Frankfurt, 68. . . . Mary Elizabeth Braddon, the noted English novelist, 78.

February 7.—John Jasper, formerly Superintendent of Schools in New York City, 77. . . . Ex-Judge Oliver H. Horton, of Chicago, a prominent lay member of the Methodist Church, 80.

February 8.—James C. Fargo, former president of the American Express Company, 86. . . . Charles Stewart Vane-Tempest-Stewart, Marquis of Londonderry, Irish landowner and noted opponent of Home Rule, 62. . . . Sir Francis Xavier Langelier, Lieutenant-Governor of Quebec, 76.

February 9.—Norman Bruce Ream, financier and organizer of industrial corporations, 70. . . . Nicholas Williams McIvor, former Consul General and Judge of the United States Court, at Yokohama, 55.

February 10.—Pembroke D. Gwaltney, of Virginia, known as the "peanut king," 78.

February 11.—John Langbourne Williams, the Richmond banker, philanthropist, and philosopher, 83. . . . Samuel T. Pickard, biographer and literary executor of Whittier, 82.

February 12.—Fanny Crosby, the famous blind hymn writer, 94. . . . James Creelman, the noted American journalist, 55.

February 14.—Prof. James Irving Manatt, head of the Greek department at Brown University, and former United States Consul at Athens, 70.

February 15.—Rev. Dr. George Washburn, for many years president of Robert College at Constantinople, 82. . . . Simon Brentano, the noted bookseller and publisher, of New York, 56.

February 17.—Brig. Gen. Greenleaf A. Goodale, U. S. A., retired, 75.



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

## FANNY CROSBY, THE HYMN WRITER

(Although afflicted with blindness almost from her birth, Miss Crosby became one of America's most famous women. Moved by a deep religious feeling, she began in middle life to exercise her wonderful poetic talent in the writing of hymns, many of which have attained universal popularity. She died in her Connecticut home last month, in her ninety-fifth year.)

© By John

T

RECORD



# CARTOONS—MOSTLY ON FOOD, SHIPPING, AND NEUTRALITY



© By John T. McCutcheon

WILL THERE BE ENOUGH BREAD TO GO AROUND?  
From the *Tribune* (Chicago)

THE question of the food supply of the world has become a pressing one, not only to the warring nations, but to other countries as well. Wheat has risen in price, and the cost of bread per loaf has accordingly also gone up.



RECORD YEARS FOR BOTH WHEAT CROPS AND THE  
PRICE OF BREAD  
From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn)



COTTON IS WAKING UP!  
(See article on page 338 of this issue)  
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)



JOHN BULL USES THE AMERICAN FLAG FOR PROTECTION From the *American* (New York)



A WORD TO THE WISE IS SUFFICIENT From the *Record* (Philadelphia)

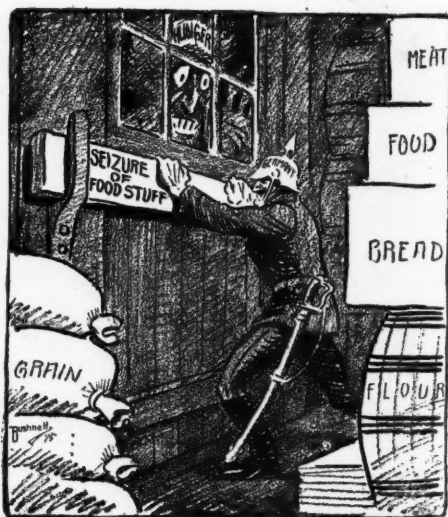


THE WAKE OF THE WILHELMINA From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle)



UNCLE SAM (handing his notes of protest to both England and Germany): "Now gentlemen!" From the *Evening News* (Newark)

Proposed plans for drastic measures and retaliatory action as between the belligerents, last month, threatened international complications. Germany declared a war zone about England, dangerous to neutral ships, and England responded with a threat to blockade Germany. The English, also, used the American flag on their vessels for protection against German submarines. The situation resulted in a vigorous protest from the United States to England and Germany.



GERMANY PREPARING FOR A SIEGE From the *Tribune* (South Bend, Indiana)



© John T. McCutcheon

UNCLE SAM'S DIFFICULT TASK  
From the Tribune (Chicago)

Uncle Sam's task as a neutral is not a particularly easy one. With complaints from one side that we are selling munitions of war to the other, and with the pernicious internal activity of the "hyphenated" American, Uncle Sam's clear course is to keep his "square deal store" open to the world on a basis of absolute impartiality, and, waving aside the national airs of the belligerents, stick to his own good tune, "Yankee Doodle."



IT WAS A REGULAR 42-CENTIMETER REPLY  
(—Was Mr. Bryan's letter in answer to German criticisms of American shipments to European belligerents)  
From the Record (Philadelphia)



THE BELLIGERENTS: "THIS THE ONLY NEUTRAL TUNE, UNCLE"  
From the Record (Philadelphia)



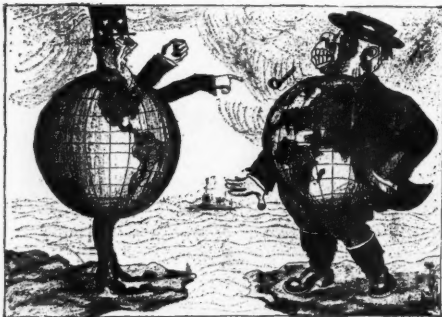
TRYING TO PUSH THE UNITED STATES INTO THE EUROPEAN WAR

From the World (New York)

March—3



UNCLE SAM'S POSITION AS A SHOP-KEEPER  
From the Tribune (Los Angeles)



AN EARNEST WORD TO JOHN BULL  
From Kikeriki (Vienna)



CURFEW SHALL NOT RING TO-NIGHT  
(—"Curfew" being the ship purchase bill in Congress, the determined opposition coming from the filibustering Republican Senators)

From the Times (Detroit)



JOHN BULL (seeing Uncle Sam at the ship shop):  
"Blawst it, wot's 'ee loain' around 'ere for? 'E's no sailor"

From the Plain Dealer (Cleveland)



THE UNITED STATES PROTESTS TO ENGLAND  
PRESIDENT WILSON: "This impudent searching of my ships—I shall soon get tired of it!"  
From Kikeriki (Vienna)

The two cartoons above refer to the American protest to England on the subject of the detention of American ships.



BON VOYAGE FOR ITALY—A GERMAN VIEW

Salandra [Italian Premier] is undoubtedly an excellent skipper, but even the best captains take a good pilot [von Bülow] aboard in difficult waters

From Lustige Blätter © (Berlin)



# A REVIVAL IN AMERICAN SHIPBUILDING

THE year 1914 was one of the poorest for the American shipbuilder. The year 1915 promises to be one of unprecedented activity. In the first thirty-six days of the present year, orders for forty-eight ocean vessels were booked and among the lot was a contract for the building of two ships for British owners. The head of one of the large shipyards announces that he has closed enough business to keep 6000 men engaged for from two to three years. Plans have been drawn and prices asked on sixty more ocean vessels. Apparently every American shipyard will be working to capacity throughout the year and the American merchant marine will have the largest addition to its tonnage in history.

Two factors enter into this remarkable revival,—first, the European war and, second, the Panama Canal. The struggle abroad has progressed far enough for American shipping men to appreciate its effects upon the ocean carrying trade. Hitherto the American has labored under serious handicaps. It costs more to build a ship in an American than in a European yard. Wages here are higher. Labor represents the largest single item in the building of a ship. It costs more, too, to operate a vessel under the American flag than under that of any other nation, our laws requiring larger crews.

## AMERICA'S OPPORTUNITY

The war, it is believed, will bring a readjustment that will wipe out these differences. Through the hundreds of thousands of men killed and the millions wounded, it is expected there will be so great a scarcity of labor in Europe when the war ends that wages will be increased to a level never reached there before, and the heavy taxation imposed on all industries to pay the war debts will raise the costs of products to a decided degree. Added to all this is the fact that while hundreds of merchant craft have been sunk by commerce destroyers, the regular output of European shipyards has ceased.

There is one more thing of which time alone can measure the importance. That is the depletion and disorganization of the forces formerly engaged in shipbuilding by being called to military duty.

Most of the vessels for which orders have been placed are of good size, ranging from 6000 to 9500 tons net registry. While the majority are designed as additions to the fleets of established American lines such as the Munson, American-Hawaiian, Porto Rico, Grace, Ocean, etc., some are intended for transatlantic service in competition with the cargo boats that have had command of this trade for many years. In gross tonnage the forty-eight vessels contracted for represent probably as much if not more than the total average for one full year in recent times in merchant craft.

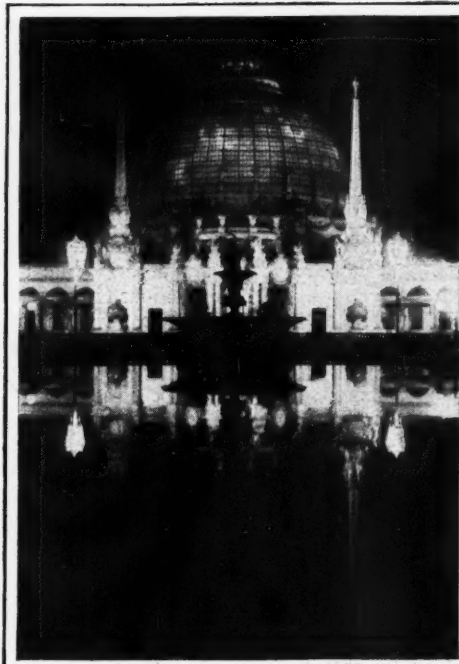
## THE NEED FOR SHIPS

Nothing is more erratic or subject to more violent change than ocean rates. A period of high freights and pronounced activity in sea commerce has followed former wars. The American shipping men see, added to what usually follows war, a tremendous trade for them from the Panama Canal and the opening of all South America to American business. A few illustrations would serve to support their belief. One of the leading concerns in Chile has been negotiating for 1,500,000 tons of coal to be delivered 300,000 a year for the next five years. To transport this amount of coal to Chile would require a fleet of about ten vessels. Heretofore, Chile has obtained its coal from Australia.

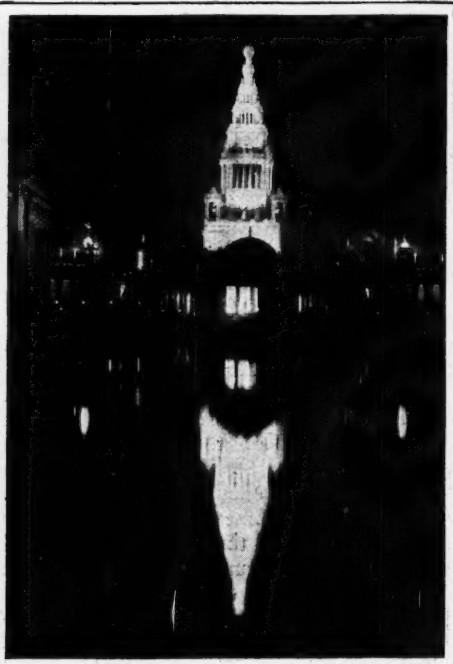
The financial depression from which Argentina, Brazil, and Paraguay suffered is reported to be nearly over so far as Argentina and Paraguay are concerned, owing to the high prices obtained for South American wheat, corn, hides, beef, and other products. A report to the National City Bank from its representative at Buenos Aires is most optimistic. He pictures the need of goods in that country as urgent and large. One item he specified was, that of window glass alone there would be ready sale for a whole shipload.

More important than anything else in his report was the statement that South America is getting away from its insistence on long credits and hereafter will be reasonably prompt in settling its accounts.

R. S.



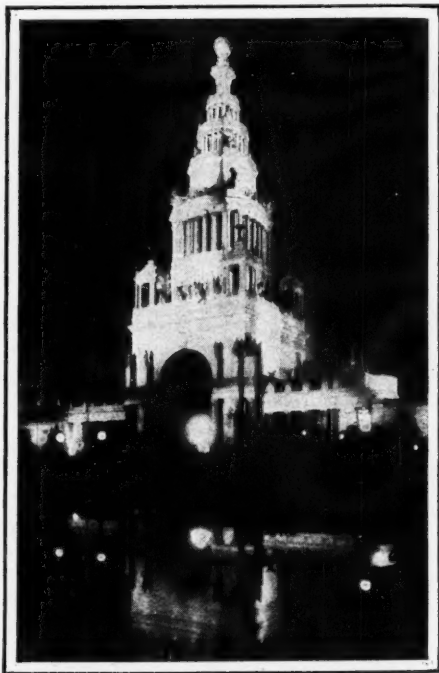
THE PALACE OF HORTICULTURE, REFLECTED IN  
THE WEST LAGOON OF THE SOUTH GARDENS



A VIEW OF THE TOWER OF JEWELS ACROSS THE  
SUNKEN POOL OF THE NORTH APPROACH

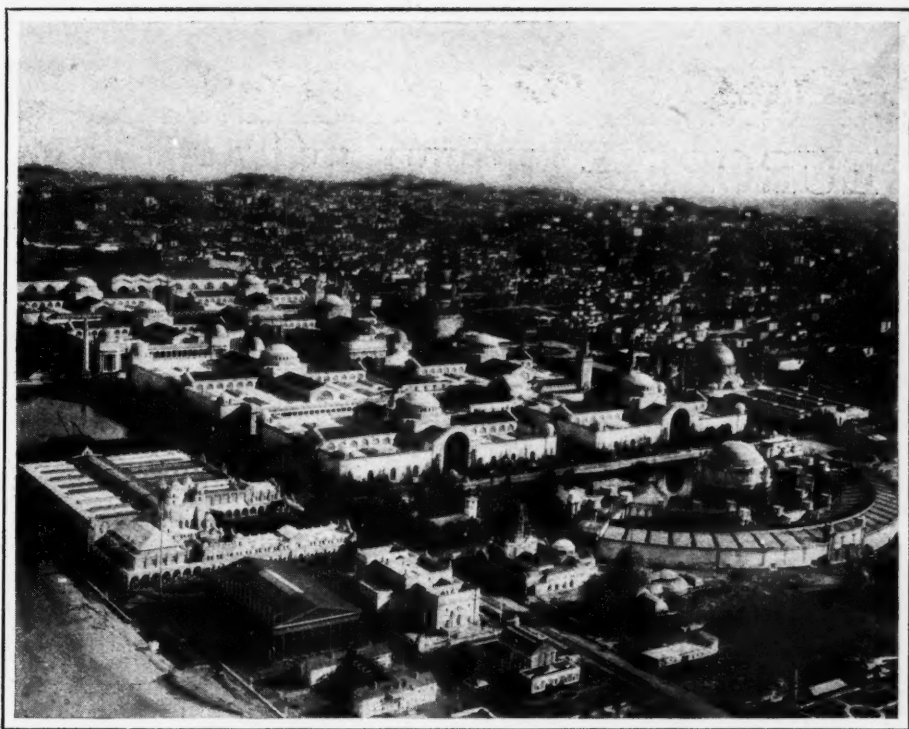


THE FACADES OF THE PALACES OF MINES AND  
TRANSPORTATION



THE TOWER OF JEWELS, THE DOMINATING  
FEATURES OF THE EXPOSITION

THE MAGNIFICENCE OF THE PANAMA-PACIFIC INTERNATIONAL EXPOSITION AT NIGHT



© Gabriel Moulin.

THE PANAMA-PACIFIC INTERNATIONAL EXPOSITION AS SEEN FROM AN AEROPLANE

# OPENING OF THE PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION

BY CHARLES C. MOORE

(President of the Exposition)

*FOUR* years ago California accepted at the hands of the Congress of the United States, the responsibility of becoming the hostess State of the nation for the nation's celebration of the completion of the Panama Canal.

She has given to the performance of that duty her utmost energy and earnestness. More than twenty million dollars have been contributed to the work of preparing a place where the achievements of all nations could be shown in a great Exposition. The nations have responded to a degree never before equaled, and our own nation, by its separate States and by its individual manufacturers and producers, has demonstrated its appreciation of the commercial importance of the great project.

To-day our work stands complete. When this appears the Exposition will have opened, —on February 20,—the date scheduled three years ago. World events unforeseen when this date was fixed have not altered the original plan, nor will they affect, except perhaps to enhance, the importance or the success of the project.

To the nation's great celebration, California invites the world.

# EUROPE—AFTER THE WAR

A BALKAN STATESMAN'S PREDICTIONS AS TO THE WAR'S DURATION  
AND THE ADJUSTMENTS THAT WILL FOLLOW

BY DR. IVAN YOVITCHÉVITCH

(Secretary-General of the Council of State of Montenegro)

[Under the title "Three Balkan Craters," we published in our issue for last August a most significant statement from the pen of a high official of Montenegro. Last month there came to us from Cetinje, by way of the Italian postal service in Albania, the remarkable survey of the war situation and its probable outcome that we present herewith. Dr. Yovitchévitch is a statesman of high accomplishment and wide acquaintance. In a private letter he sets forth the fact that the Montenegrin people are in great distress through food shortage and poverty as the result of a series of wars, and asks if it may not be possible for Americans to give some share of their relief to his people. His appeal is worthy of response. Who will help the Montenegrins?—THE EDITOR.]

**I**N an authorized interview for the AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS, last summer, I ventured to predict that war was imminent in Europe, and that the principal causes of war lay smouldering in the Balkans, which I had pictured as a slumbering volcano with three craters. My boldness in predicting the future appeared most presumptuous, perhaps the more so since the twentieth century is not an age of prophets.

Yet from my thorough knowledge of the situation in the Balkans I was practically certain that one of the craters would burst forth and inflame all Europe. I would be very happy if I had been mistaken.

Alas, my prophecy was fulfilled and the "second Balkan crater,"—that is to say,—the ill feeling between Serbia and Austria eventually cast the spark that set Europe on fire; and for many months the horrors of war have increased at a frightful rate, the number of the dead, the maimed, the widows and orphans receiving a daily increment. Ancient monuments lie in ruins; entire countries are ravaged by fire, and the armies, mad with blood lust, have become such savages that they respect nothing that lies in their path. In the light of these horrible disasters one is obliged to conclude that there is but little difference between the warriors of to-day and the barbarian hordes of the Huns, who, under the leadership of their chief, Attila, sacked a part of southern Europe; it is this that has covered the twentieth century with shame.

Sad and impressive instances are the evil deeds of the German armies that hurled themselves like a plague upon unhappy Belgium. These armies committed such atrocities

that the whole world was stupefied and dumfounded. They burned towns and villages, massacring on their way men, women, and children. The Austrian armies did the same thing in the countries that they occupied for a time; of this the poor Serbian nation knows something. The armies of the other belligerents will do identically the same as soon as they arrive in the countries inhabited by the German race. Europe is, then, a hell, and its inhabitants are devils who kill one another like the lowest savages, to the everlasting shame of our twentieth-century civilization.

## *How Long Will This Lamentable Situation Continue?*

The duration of this war is a matter of worldwide concern. May I be permitted to express my opinion that the contest must continue for a long time and for this reason: A half-year has passed since the beginning of hostilities and the belligerents are at about the same point that they were at the outset, so far as victory is concerned. It is true that the losses are enormous, but who are the vanquished and who are the victors?

It is indisputable that this question remains unanswered up to this moment, and each belligerent is still animated with the firm resolve to conquer, and with the same hope that was cherished in the first days of hostilities. The second reason that makes me believe that this deplorable situation must last a long time is this: The two great giants, worthy combatants one of the other, for their strength, intrepidity and tactics, the Russian and the German, who are the pre-



ponderant factors in this monstrous struggle, do not seem to want to engage in a decisive combat. They are like two wrestlers who are afraid of each other and delay taking the hazard of a grapple; each, circling his adversary, hopes to conquer him when his strength is exhausted.

When these two big European antagonists, the Russian and the German, employ the tactics of two fear-struck wrestlers, it goes without saying that the European war will continue for a considerable period, granting that the two antagonists are equally matched in their economic and physical strength and in the matter of their *morale*.

It appears incontestable that the horrors of this war, which are without parallel, will continue for a lengthy period, and that the unfortunate people must endure more suffering and atrocities without number.

#### *How Will the Terrible Struggle End?*

The second question, not less interesting, is to know how this European war will end. When the hostilities began it was extremely difficult to give an opinion on either side, but one can say now that the chances of victory are on the side of Russia and her allies. One can say that the German plan has failed. This plan was to fall suddenly upon France and crush her completely before the concentration of the Russian armies could be accomplished, and then, thanks to her network of railroads, transport the German troops to the Russian frontier and defeat the armies of the Czar before their complete mobilization could be effected. But on one side the heroic resistance of the Belgians and on the other the quick mobilization of the Russians caused Germany to change her plans and transport a large part of her forces to East Prussia, which General Rennenkampf had penetrated with a Russian army. That saved Paris and perhaps the whole French army.

Austria-Hungary on her side was persuaded that Serbia and Montenegro would be subdued in a short time and that, once in touch with Bulgaria and Turkey, she would force Rumania to join the two other states against Russia. However, the heroic resistance of the Serbs and the Montenegrins astonished the whole world, and because of the three above-mentioned facts, the plans of Germany and Austria-Hungary could not be carried out. And this plan having failed at the beginning of the war it has no chance whatever of succeeding in the future.

Therefore it appears that the European war cannot be brought to an end by decisive

battles, but only by the complete exhaustion of one of the parties, and as Germany and Austria-Hungary are comparatively in a state of blockade, one can say without fear of being mistaken that these two powers will be the more quickly exhausted; their adversaries being masters of the sea, they can without doubt resist longer from an economic point of view.

To conclude, then, we can say with certainty that the Russians and their allies have the best of it, and that this terrible struggle will end in the complete defeat of Germany and Austria-Hungary.

#### *The Probable Consequences*

And what will be the result? The outcome of the present war may be conceived thus:

First: Russia will expand at the expense of Austria-Hungary, will annex Galicia, and will demand from Turkey the occupation of Constantinople and a part of Asia Minor.

Second: France will regain her two former provinces of Alsace and Lorraine.

Third: England will be benefited by gaining possession of the German colonies, as well as a part of Asia Minor.

Fourth: Belgium will receive as recompense for her stoic resistance the Duchy of Luxemburg.

Fifth: The two kindred kingdoms of Serbia and Montenegro will receive as a reward for a struggle not less stoical, the two Austrian provinces peopled by the Serb race.

Sixth: Italy as a reward for her neutrality would receive the provinces of Austria-Hungary inhabited by Italians.

Seventh: Rumania for the same reason would receive Bukovina, an Austrian province peopled largely by Rumanians.

As to Turkey, which has been dragged into the war by German political intrigue, she will be erased from the map as an independent country. It will be the same with Albania; for her inhabitants, who are in a state of perpetual anarchy, cannot long exist as an independent people.

This, then, is my view of the conditions that will be imposed upon the conquered. Perhaps changes may be even greater; for it is possible that Austria-Hungary, like Turkey, may cease to exist as an independent empire. Nor is it inconceivable that certain provinces might be snatched from Germany, as for example German Poland. But here you have in a few words my opinion of the actual situation now existing in Europe, and my predictions for the future.

# THE WAR'S NEW ALIGNMENTS

BY FRANK H. SIMONDS

## I. NEW HORIZONS

**V**IEWED from the military side, February was for Germany the most brilliantly successful month since October, when she took Antwerp and approached the very walls of Warsaw. Eastward her victories over the Russians were as complete in Bukovina as in East Prussia, and her armies brought new life to Austro-Hungarian efforts in the Carpathians. Only the defeat of a naval raid directed at the British coast and the loss of the *Blucher* gave Berlin cause for regret.

Yet the solid and splendid triumphs of German arms had for the world less meaning than the official declarations which by their very defiance of international practice and neutral rights seemed to emphasize how serious for Germany had become the question of her food supply and how terrible was the advantage of sea power possessed by her most relentless and most hated enemy, England.

Napoleon, having conquered at Austerlitz and Jena and become temporarily master of Europe, had sought to crush British commerce by his famous Berlin and Milan decrees, the first of which proclaimed that the British Isles were in a state of blockade; the second declared that any ship which touched a British port was liable to be seized and treated as a prize. Germany, still holding Belgium, Northern France, Western Poland, in February struck at England with the proclamation that the waters about the British Islands were a war zone in which neutral ships would be exposed to attack and destruction by German submarines without the formality of search.

To her foes such a declaration could only mean that Germany foresaw the coming of a time when her own food supplies would fail. This view was further confirmed by an earlier official decree which placed all grain supplies in Germany under the control of the government. Taken together these two acts were accepted as confession that Germany feared defeat by starvation unless she could break the iron ring about her. To do this she must compel the British to raise the embargo on food supplies, and her only weapon

was the submarine, by which she might hope to intercept food ships bound for Britain and by compelling the English to suffer from food shortage force the abolition of the food blockade.

As to English ships, Admiral von Tirpitz had, in January, frankly proclaimed a policy of submarine aggression which contemplated sinking ships and crews and thus conduct a reign of terror on the high seas. In February the campaign opened, not by sinking crew and ships, but by torpedoing several ships at the very mouth of the Mersey and setting their crews ashore. Such a course must and did provoke unfavorable criticism among the neutrals, but to extend this policy to neutral ships was to open new horizons, was a frank confession that the German campaign to win sympathy abroad had given way to a stern necessity to make war as terrible as possible for the foe even at the expense of neutrals.

This policy, too, was of utmost interest to Americans, because it was, after all, aimed chiefly at American ships, likely to be the bearers of supplies to the British Islands. What Germany actually sought was not to shut off American ships from England, but by threat to compel Americans to urge Great Britain to remove its embargo on food for Germany, carried in neutral bottoms, and, if this request were refused, to prohibit the shipping of arms and supplies to the Allies. By this time the campaign of German-Americans to have the American Congress prohibit the exportation of arms and ammunition to belligerents had failed, and the quantity of ammunition flowing from the United States to the allies, and particularly England, had become enormous.

A discussion of the American policy as revealed in the note to Germany and the similar note to Great Britain, evoked by the use of the American flag by British passenger steamships, is outside the field of this review. But the condition of the German mind and the causes for the German action are of obvious pertinence, supply the salient detail of the war in February, and these will be discussed briefly after the progress of the operations East and West has been reviewed.

## II. POLITICS AND STRATEGY IN THE EAST

In December and early January Austrian disaster had for the second time given the world reason to believe that a collapse of the Dual Empire might change the whole face of the conflict. While Russian armies again passed the central and eastern Carpathian passes other forces swept Bukovina and approached Transylvania. The occupation of the crownland was a fair invitation to Rumania to join the conflict on the Russian side and receive Bukovina as a bribe and Transylvania as a reward for participation.

For Germany the problem was promptly set to protect Hungary, grown impatient through disaster and anxious because of impending attack from Servia, from Galicia and Bukovina, and because of the possibility of Rumanian hostility. The resignation of Berchtold and the selection of Burian were evidences that within the Empire Hungarian apprehensions were recognized. The visit of Count Tisza to the Kaiser was a sign that Germany had been warned.

This warning Germany received with all possible attention and acted upon with amazing promptness. Thus in January, while the Russian occupation of Transylvania was being discussed, German troops were brought south and concentrated in lower Hungary. Their purpose, it was duly announced from Vienna and Berlin, was a new invasion of victorious but stricken Servia. Yet a few weeks later these troops appeared in Transylvania, and moved east parallel to the Rumanian frontier,—as a warning to the Hohenzollern king of this state that to take Transylvania he must fight the head of the Hohenzollern house.

Under the pressure of these troops Russian armies in Bukovina speedily began to give ground. Step by step they were driven from before the Borgo and Kirilibaba passes, they were cleared out of the foothills of the Carpathians, and on February 17, when this is written, their retreat has halted at the Sereth River, a few miles south and west of Czernowitz and the Russian frontier, more than two-thirds of Bukovina has been reconquered and the Germans have interposed a wall of troops between the Czar and his prospective Rumanian allies.

In the same time there came from Budapest new rumors of Russian disaster, of the suicide of a Russian commander, and the capture of the general staff of the defeated army.

These rumors were properly discounted, but there remained the solid fact that Bukovina had been reconquered, the invitation to Rumania to participate in the war had been abruptly cancelled by German arms, and from Bucharest there came no more reports of the intervention of the Latin state without delay. On the contrary, there were credible reports of the release of vast stores of grain previously purchased by Germany and Austria, temporarily held up by the Rumanian Government, but now permitted to go north. Patently a military campaign waged for obvious political ends had succeeded.

Nor did the quieting of Rumania end the success of German policy. A German loan to Bulgaria again stimulated rumor that Ferdinand and his Bulgarian subjects were contemplating an entrance into the war on the German side, were planning to retake Macedonia, to strike at Servia and Greece, and, by cutting the Orient Railway, shut off the Slav state from Salonica and foreign supplies, and by invading the Valley of the Morava open a road between Berlin and Constantinople and thus unite the central or Continental nations. This rumor was perhaps idle, but it is interesting to note, as it indicates the change in a month from the January gossip of Rumanian attack upon Hungary.

Finally, from Albania came a fresh incursion into Servia along the marches of the



SCENE OF THE EASTERN FIGHTING

Drina, directed at Prisrend and the territory still populated by Albanians but ceded to Serbia and Montenegro by the Treaty of London. Here was new work for the Serbian army calculated to keep it occupied south of the Danube and away from Bosnia until Germany had dealt with Russian activity in the southeast. Such, briefly summarized, were the purpose and achievement of German arms in Bukovina. Thus promptly and completely had the Kaiser answered the appeal for help made a few weeks before; thus had he justified the affection and esteem in which he had long been held by the Hungarians and silenced the whispers of discontent in Budapest.

### III. THE BATTLE FOR THE CARPATHIANS

It was not merely for the saving of Transylvania that Hungary appealed to the Kaiser; even more serious was the menace which a Russian advance across the Carpathians south of Przemyśl and Lemberg had for the Magyar State. To explain this campaign it is necessary briefly to describe the military importance of the Carpathians and of the passes which connect Galicia with Northern Hungary.

Looking at the map, it will be seen that the Carpathian range stretches in a wide half circle from the southernmost corner of German Silesia to the frontier of Rumania. On a relief map it will be noted that this great circle is pierced almost at the center by a wide depression, due south of Przemyśl and Lemberg. West of this depression the Carpathians form three separate folds or ridges, from north to south the Western Beskids, the High Tatra and the Low Tatra. East of it, the range spreads out with high summits known as the Eastern Beskids and the Forest Mountains. While the High Tatra reach an elevation of nearly 9000 feet and the summits in the eastern mountains pass 6000, the elevation of the central depression is well below 2000 and through several gaps the main roads and railways from Hungary into Eastern Galicia find their way.

Three of these passes have been in the news of the war ever since the Russians entered Lemberg. These are, from west to east, the Dukla Pass, through which goes the main highway from Hungary to Galicia, that reaches the Galician Plain southeast of Tarnow; the Lupkow Pass, through which runs the railroad from Budapest to

Przemyśl, which joins the southern Galician trunk line at Sanok; and the Uzsok Pass, through which goes the main railway between Vienna and Lemberg and also an important military highway. South of the Uzsok is the Vereczke Pass, through which another trunk line goes from Vienna to Lemberg, crossing the southern Galicia line at Stryj, as the Uzsok line does at Sambor.

By these passes Russian raiding forces descended into the Hungarian Plain along the Theiss River in December, spread destruction and compelled the recall of Austrian army corps which at that moment were on the point of crushing the Serbian army about Valievo. It was over these four passes that the Austrians in November had come to the relief of Przemyśl in the campaign which ended in disaster along the San.

At the westernmost point of their advance the Russians penetrated Hungary to the environs of the city of Kassa, 170 miles from the Hungarian capital, and in January vast throngs of fugitives brought to Budapest evidence of Russian incursion. If Hungarian loyalty to the Austro-German alliance were to be maintained it was necessary for Germany to intervene in the Carpathians as in Bukovina. Once more Germany's resources in men and material were adequate.

Thus, while in January the battle reports spoke of towns in the valleys of the Latorze, the Ung and the Laborc, tributaries of the Theiss on the Hungarian side of the mountains, by February even the Russian bulletins began to concede the presence of Austro-German forces in the upper valleys of the Wislocka, the San, and the Dneister; that is, on the Galician side of the range. By February 17 the Russians conceded that they had yielded in all four of the passes and had taken their stand on the foothills of the Carpathians on the Galician side and along the southern Galician trunk line, which crosses the lines coming through the passes at Stryj, Sambor, Sanok, and Krasno.

In the meantime Przemyśl still held out, and by February 15, while German bulletins promised the deliverance of the gallant garrison of this town, now reduced to horse-meat, but promising to eat shoe leather before they yielded, Russian official statements grudgingly admitted that the garrison was showing new activity.

At the moment these lines are written the Austro-German campaign seems momentarily pausing at the foot of the passes on the Galician side. If the offensive can be pushed home along the roads and railways now

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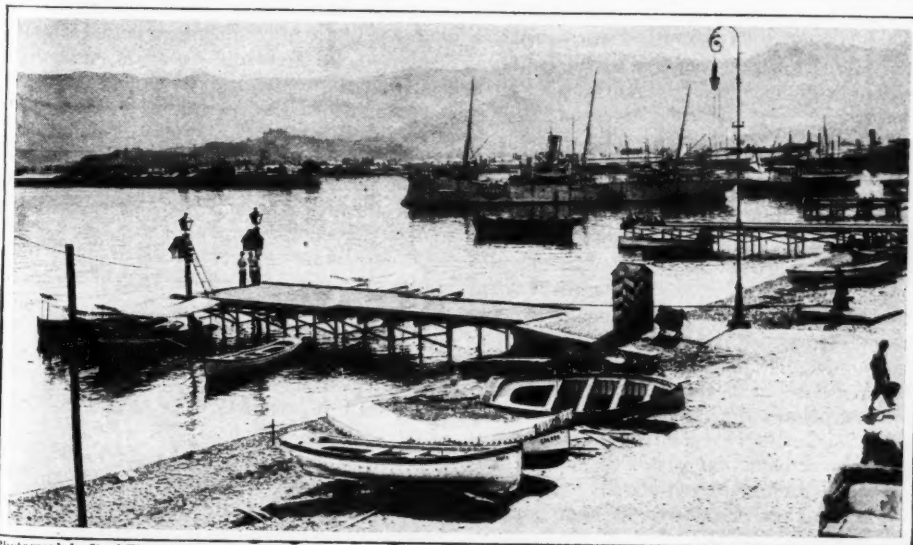
Photograph by Medem Photo Service

THE HARBOR OF ARCHANGEL—RUSSIA'S ICE-LOCKED PORT ON THE NORTH



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

RUSSIAN ARTILLERY IN THE SNOW BEFORE CRACOW



Photograph by Paul Thompson

BATUM—RUSSIA'S PORT ON THE BLACK SEA. THAT HAS BEEN BOMBARDED BY TURKISH BATTLESHIPS

partially occupied, the deliverance of Galicia, held since September 1, must follow. But already the whole Russian offensive along the Carpathians from the Rumanian frontier to the Tatra has been halted, thrown back, cleared out of the important passes. The invasion of Hungary is no longer discussed, the reconquest of Galicia is the question of the hour.

While the Russians have thus been driven out of the Carpathians, they have been checked about Tarnow, fifty miles east of Cracow, which is no longer threatened with siege. Such, briefly, is German achievement in defense of Hungary, an achievement in which Austro-Hungarian troops shared largely, but for which the chief credit must go to the German.

#### IV. EAST PRUSSIA IS REDEEMED

To answer the Austro-German thrust through Bukovina and over the Carpathians the Russians chose to strike at East Prussia. Strategically such a move was advantageous because it meant moving troops a far shorter distance away from Warsaw, which remained the center of military operations in the whole eastern front. Practically, could East Prussia be overrun, the whole Russian front would be straightened, a great province, a source of food supply to Germany, would be conquered, and ultimately the German position between the Bzura and the Nida in Russian Poland would be exposed to attack in the flank and rear.

Thus, while the main Russian and German armies faced each other west of Warsaw on the lines they had taken when Hindenburg's great offensive against the Polish capital had been halted in December, new armies were directed against the German positions north of the Vistula and south of the Niemen, on a front from Tilsit to Johannisburg, while another force moved down the north bank of the Vistula toward Thorn.

Again it is necessary to glance at the map to grasp the operations. Inside the eastern frontier of East Prussia some fifty miles there extends from north to south between Insterburg and Johannisburg that intricate tangle of water known as the Msurian Lakes, out of which flows the Angerapp River, which joins the Inster at Insterburg to make the Pregel, a stream that enters the sea at Koenigsberg. In this region *Rennenkampff* had suffered his great disaster in September at Tannenberg. To this obstacle the Russians had returned in October after defeating a

German invasion of Suwalki Province at the Battle of Augustovo.

For three months Russian and German forces had faced each other in this region with little or no change of position. Now the Russians undertook to turn the Germans out of their strong position behind the Msurian Lakes by attacking from the north and south; that is, by coming in on the flanks. At the outset this move met with apparent success. Coming west on the solid ground between the Niemen and the Angerapp rivers, the Russians approached Tilsit, took Pilkallen, began to talk again of a siege of Koenigsberg. At the same time, to the south of the Msurian region, between the East Prussian frontier and the Vistula, they made headway toward Thorn.

In the first week in February, however, Hindenburg countered with terrific force. The first sign was a renewal of the German offensive south of the Vistula and along the Bzura-Rawa front. On this line the Germans began a series of desperate assaults, which were announced as a new drive at Warsaw. Petrograd proclaimed the slaughter in these fights the greatest in the whole war, and there were circumstantial reports that the Kaiser himself had been shocked by the sacrifice of life in a forlorn undertaking.

By the second week in this month, however, the truth became apparent. The German attacks had been mere screening movements to cover the withdrawal of troops from this front to East Prussia and very soon Petrograd began to concede defeat and retreat in East Prussia, while Berlin announced a second Tannenberg and the capture of 40,000 Russians. In any event it was clear that by the use of automobiles, by again employing the strategic railways along the East Prussian frontier, the Germans had rushed overwhelming forces into East Prussia, beaten the Russian flanking force between the Niemen and the Angerapp and completely redeemed East Prussia, save for a little corner about Lyck.

On February 17 German troops were advancing eastward all along the front from the Vistula to the Niemen, were across the Russian frontier in many places, and were still driving the Russians back toward their fortresses of Kovno, Grodno, Bielestok, and Ostrolenka; that is, behind the Niemen and the Narew. Seven months after the war had broken out German soil was practically free of Russians, and from the Rumanian frontier to the Baltic German troops, with the support of their Austro-Hungarian allies,

were advancing. It was then, small wonder, that the Kaiser himself should congratulate his armies on achievements which, as he justly said, exceeded all expectation.

In this situation it was conceivable that a German drive at Warsaw from the north, defeated by weather rather than Russian arms in December, might be resumed. But as the Polish spring approached and the roads became impassable, military authorities began to forecast a new German effort in the West, where spring would bring good roads. At the least Germany could now choose, and in the East the initiative was hers. If Russia had, on the whole, done more than had been expected of her, she had so far failed to harvest decisive results, and was at a standstill.

## V. STILL THE DEADLOCK IN THE WEST

While Russia had met with complete failure in the East, while Germany had multiplied armies on the whole front from the Baltic to the Pruth, and won notable triumphs, she had displayed no weakness on the West. Not only had she beaten down all that was left of the much-heralded French offensive in Alsace, retained the ground won along the Aisne before Soissons and about Rheims, and held off the British attack upon La Bassée, but eastward of Rheims, about Souain, she had, on the confession of French official statements, overwhelmed a French detachment and made good her triumph.

In a word, the deadlock in the West was unbroken in February and nowhere was there the slightest indication that the Allies were now making progress, even by inches, toward the liberation of French soil. Reports of the arrival of British reinforcements continued, but military observers, measuring the strength of the British army by the front it still occupied, maintained that as yet there were not more than 220,000 troops of all arms and of all races under the British colors on the Continent.

That the French and English had been able to manufacture heavy artillery to match the Germans was conceded on all sides, and superiority for new British guns was claimed in official statements. That sufficient ammunition was in their hands was suggested by German statements of the discovery of American supplies among the captures. In arms and ammunition the gap between Germany and her opponents had plainly been permanently bridged. In numbers it was stated

by many, whose views deserve credence, that the Germans had now less than 1,000,000 on the western front, were outnumbered at least two to one; yet such was the use they made of captured railways that their numbers remained wholly adequate for their task.

In February, too, military observers commented freely upon the growing difficulty of the Allied task. There was no real belief that Germany could again sweep south, no notion that her successes could be more than local; what was in the minds of military critics was the fact that there had been allowed to Germany so many months to fortify her lines behind her front that months, and even several years, might pass before there could be any real hope that Lille, St. Quentin, Maubeuge would be freed from the invader by military operation.

What was in the minds of all observers was the prospect that the defeat of Germany, if it were to be achieved in advance of the slow and terrible attrition of years of conflict, must come from the use of naval power and not by any spectacular or immediate military operation. In September the French and English had attempted to turn the Germans out of France by a flank move to Belgium. This had failed. In December and January a second effort by a general offensive from Switzerland to the sea had failed, had resulted in a loss of territory, insignificant but humiliating, in a loss of life all official reports concealed.

Military men paid full tribute to the strength and efficiency of the French army. Whatever its state in August, it was in February fit for any possible task. But until England's new million had come there was small hope for the French of clearing their own soil and there was no mistaking the fact that the month brought with it a depression not equaled since the Battle of the Marne, a depression not revealed in any desire to make peace, but in a new understanding of the terrible sacrifices that were to come, must come before there could be hope of peace.

For the Allies, February was a month comparable with the year 1862 in the Civil War, when the American people first began to take measure of the meaning of war and the North began to comprehend the extent of its task. Yet by commercial treaties, by mutual loans, by the general scheme of pooling resources and efforts, Allied statesmen gave new promise of enduring, and Petrograd, now facing defeat, echoed the determination of Paris in early September, to continue until victory was achieved.

## VI. GERMANY'S FOOD PROBLEM

It now remains to discuss the problem of food supply, which in February was revealed by German action to be the chiefest concern of the Kaiser's ministers. It is perhaps best to approach this question first from the German point of view and then to refer to the meager guidance given by international law.

For Germany, the first months of the war had settled one thing. As has often been pointed out in this magazine, the chance to conquer Europe vanished at the Marne. The problem that remained was whether Europe could conquer Germany either by military effort or by using seapower to starve the civilian populations of Germany and her Austrian ally.

Six months of effort to conquer Germany earned for the Allies little of real value. In February as in September Germany occupied practically all of Belgium, much of Northern France, and of Western Poland. The factory regions of the province of Hainault and of the Department of the Nord, the coal deposits of Lens, the iron mines of Briey, the richest industrial regions in Continental Europe, outside of Germany, remained in the Kaiser's hands. To defend his frontiers on alien soil was still possible.

In this situation Germany might hope to stand off her enemies, to take such a tremendous toll of human life as the price of yielding not German but French, Belgian, and Russian territory, that her enemies, through exhaustion, through sheer inability to continue the sacrifice, might consent to make peace, collectively or severally, if she were herself safe from peril. But if the British fleet should cut off the food supply from without, then victorious Germany might be brought to her knees and conquered provinces would be as Midas gold to her lips.

This purpose Great Britain now proclaimed. British fleets in the Channel, at Gibraltar, north of Scotland, had halted ships carrying copper, Germany's one great lack for ammunition manufacture; British pressure upon adjacent neutrals, upon Scandinavia, Holland, and Italy early began to check the flow of contraband to the Fatherland. The reports of a shortage of breadstuff in Germany had reached the outside world and presently came the decree of the government which brought the seizure by the government of all grains and the future distribution by the state.

With this step it became clear that Germany might face eventual famine unless she

could break the blockade. To break it she resolved upon the submarine blockade of England, which was, in fact, a proposal to sink all British merchant ships, with their crews if necessary, in the hope of making Britain endure the same danger of grain famine which now threatened Germany. But this was in reality an idle threat, for there were lacking to Germany sufficient submarines to maintain a real blockade and neutral ships were still able to serve England.

But if Germany could compel the neutral nations to bring England to abandon her purpose to consider foodstuffs contraband, she might still attain her end. To do this she staked all on a single throw, and following the precedent of Napoleon, the dangerous precedent which in the end proved fatal to him, proclaimed a war zone about the British Islands and warned neutral powers that their ships would, after February 18, be exposed to the same peril as British ships in this war zone. Patently what Germany expected was not to sink neutral ships, but that neutral nations, headed by the United States, would at once demand that England lift the embargo on foodstuffs. This was disclosed when the British, having seized the *Wilhelmina*, bound for Germany with grain, America was informed Germany would rescind her declaration if America would protest the seizure.

In substance Germany, now conceding that her own life might be in danger, told the world that her necessities put her beyond international law and indicated to them the way that they should act to escape German menace. For the United States the way was to threaten the Allies with a prohibition of the export of foods and ammunition, which German-Americans had vainly asked Congress to prohibit, unless the food embargo were lifted. To this the United States replied with the sharpest note that had come from Washington since the Cleveland message on the Venezuelan Boundary, and the other neutral nations, in less brusque language, asserted the same rights.

England, on her part, sent the *Wilhelmina's* cargo to the prize courts and indicated her determination to continue her embargo. It now remained for Germany to decide whether she would make good her words, neglect the American warning, and sink neutral ships, or admit defeat diplomatically. Her paper blockade had failed in its purpose wholly, and aroused the resentment of all neutrals, to whom German necessities bulked smaller than their own rights.

Photograph

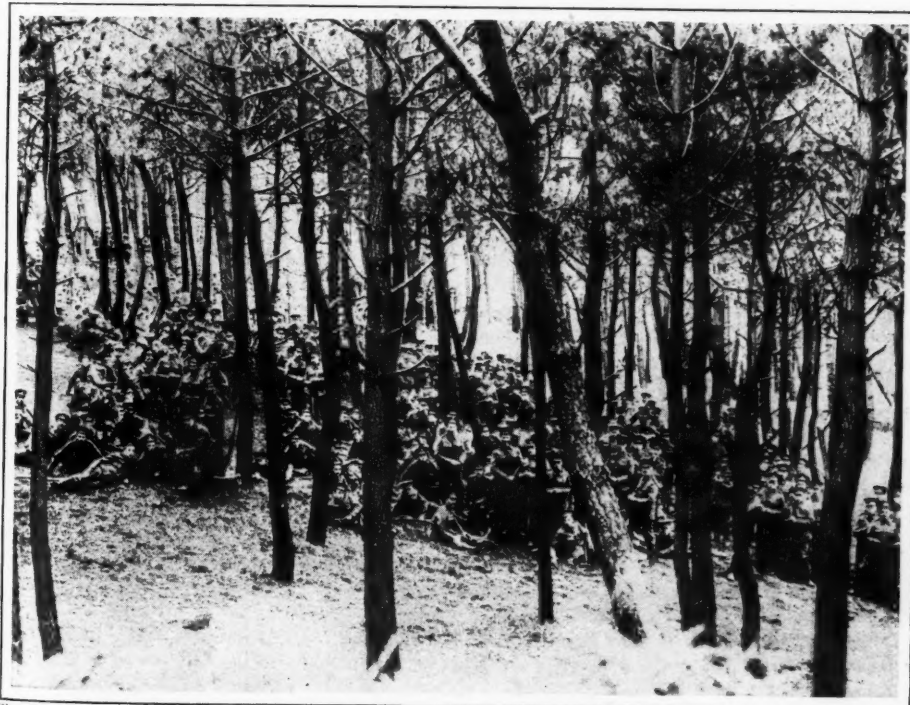
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A REGIN





Photograph by American Press Association, New York

GERMANS IN THE TRENCHES IN THE VOSGES



Photograph by American Press Association, New York

A REGIMENT OF ENGLISH INFANTRY WAITING IN A FOREST COVER FOR THE WORD TO TAKE UP ITS POSITION IN THE TRENCHES

## VII. GERMANY'S CASE IN LAW

In the matter of the grain embargo Germany could plead warrant in international law. Her case rested upon that principle stated in the Declaration of London which makes foodstuffs conditional contraband. Article 33 of this Declaration provides that "Conditional contraband is liable to capture if it is shown to be destined for the use of the armed forces or a government department of the enemy state, unless in this latter case the circumstances show that the goods cannot in fact be used for the purposes of the war in progress." Grain and foodstuffs are in this sense conditional contraband.

The decision of the German Government to take over the whole grain supply of the nation furnished the British Government with a technical justification for the seizure of the grain of the *Wilhelmina*, and for seizing future grain cargoes.

On the other hand, the case of the neutrals against German proposals was squarely bottomed upon international law. The first requisite for a blockade is that it shall be effective; that is, as was defined in the Declaration of Paris in 1856 and reaffirmed in the Declaration of London, "it must be maintained by a force sufficient, really, to prevent access to the enemy coast-line." To claim this for the few German submarines used to interrupt commerce in British waters was patently absurd. As it could not be effective, the German blockade was, in fact, a mere paper blockade, without standing. Again, a blockade must be continuously maintained, another task beyond the submarines.

In sum, then, the German declaration amounted to a threat to sink neutral ships in neutral waters; that is, on the high seas, if those waters were within the area described by Germany as a war zone. According to usage and international law, the right to search such ships, to seize ships or cargo, or both, under proper reserves belonged to the Germans, but they contended that the fact that British ships were using the American flag and merchant ships had been armed to

destroy submarines made such search dangerous, as the nature of the submarine would make it difficult.

The situation of the neutrals, and of the United States in particular, was complicated by the fact that the British passenger ships were using the American flag; the *Lusitania* had used the Stars and Stripes at the height of this debate. In consequence the American Government addressed a note of protest to England, not demanding that the practise be abandoned on any warrant of law, for none existed and the practise was recognized, but pointing out the peril it might bring to American ships. But such a protest could only inflame German resentment when it appeared at the same moment as the brusque warning to Germany.

For America, for all neutral nations, the new German policy was fraught with the gravest perils. Holland, Scandinavia, Italy, all these states traded with Great Britain, and all were forced now to consider the possibility of an "incident" which might bring them to the edge of war, an "incident" resulting merely from the exercise by them of those rights which had not been questioned in law since Napoleon, in a dilemma such as the Kaiser now found himself in, had issued his Berlin and Milan decrees, to which allusion has been made.

The moral effect of this German declaration unmistakably injured German prestige the world over. The very desperateness of the policy adopted was interpreted as disclosing internal weakness which served to counterbalance all the splendid victories of February. While Berlin celebrated Hindenburg's new triumphs in the Musurian Lake region, London, Paris, and Petrograd took new courage in Germany's apparent confession of weakness, and Washington looked with patent anxiety toward the new peril, which threatened to draw this country into the world-war despite its unaffected eagerness to remain neutral. To Americans it might seem that Germany had deliberately sought to embroil neutrals. To Germany's enemies it did seem that she had confessed weakness.





Photograph by Paul Thompson, New York

#### AT THE FAMOUS AUSTRIAN STRONGHOLD OF PRZEMYSL

(Karl Franz Joseph, heir to the throne (in center), inspecting the fortress, accompanied by General Kusmanek, its defender)

## AUSTRIA-HUNGARY'S LEADERS IN THE NEW LINE-UP

[Austrian war censorship has been unrelenting, and scant and obscure has been the Austro-Hungarian military news that has come to the outside world. After half a year of war, even the military experts in America have hardly learned the names of the Austrian generals. It is apparent, however, that there has recently been a radical reorganization; and the following article embodies much interesting information as to the men who now lead armies and are hoping to recover, in the spring campaigns, some of the prestige that Austria-Hungary lost in the fall and winter.—THE EDITOR.]

**T**HE Dual Monarchy has apparently pulled itself together for another, supreme effort. Germany's ally had ended the old year in a particularly unfortunate situation. The severe reverses of the autumn had brought in their train the threat of Servian invasion; the Russian menace as to Hungary became increasingly dangerous, and internal affairs in the empire began to develop in a disquieting manner. These conditions all made imperative a thorough reorganization of the Austro-Hungarian forces for a new and vigorous campaign against the threatened tidal wave of Slavs from both the East and the South. The German General Staff undoubtedly played a prominent part in this reorganization. There has been a realignment of forces, a shake-up among the leaders, and

an infusion of German genius and material, with the result that soon after the beginning of the year the military operations of Austria-Hungary took on a new and vigorous aspect.

#### AUSTRIA-HUNGARY'S PROBLEMS

The military problems of Austria-Hungary had been beset with peculiar difficulties. In the first place, she lacked that close-knit unity which characterized the German military machine. Her army organization, in fact, is affected by the composite nature of the political system. Austria-Hungary, with two governments, has, really, three military establishments. First there is the Imperial Royal Army, which is the common force of the Empire. Then there are the Austrian "Landwehr," and the Hungarian "Honvéd,"

which are not "reserves," but constitute each the military force of its own country, with its own reserve organization. The annual classes of military cadets are apportioned among these three different military establishments, remaining subject to service afterward only in that organization to which they were originally assigned.

Austria-Hungary has an elaborate system of military education for the youth of the Empire, beginning with the public schools and ranging up through the various military institutions to the War Academy in Vienna. It is in this famous War Academy that the future generals are trained, and here army activities center both in peace and in war. Subject to a rigorous method of selection, the officers enter the academy as First Lieutenants, and receive a three-years' course of thorough training in all branches of military science, as well as in certain lines of general knowledge.

#### AN ARMY OF DIVERSE RACES

Austria-Hungary's threefold system complicates military matters and adds to the difficulties of mobilization. But army problems are also increased by the heterogeneous character of her soldiers,—the result of the numerous races comprising the population of the Empire,—Hungarians, Germans, Rumanians, Poles, Czechs, Croats, and so on. Regiments of one race are often officered by men of another, with consequent difficulties arising from the use of different languages. These racial elements are, however, recognized in the making up of the military organization, the distinctive racial qualities being utilized in that branch of the service where they will be most effective.

For instance, the cavalry, famous for its uhlans, dragoons, and hussars, is recruited mostly from the Hungarians, who are noted for their horsemanship and spirited dash, the temperaments of horse and rider being har-

moniously merged. In action these horsemen are literally ungovernable, and once in sight of the enemy, dash at them in impetuous and irresistible fashion. The Hungarian cavalry, for this reason, are often held back for the final charge.

Other racial elements similarly possess their peculiar traits. The Croats are excellent soldiers, acting well under military discipline. The Czechs (Bohemians), while not celebrated for military qualities, are noted for their endurance, while the warlike virtues of the Poles are historic. The artillery branch, which contributed so effectively to German success in Belgium, is recruited mostly from Austrians and Hungarian Swabians. The department of transportation, like the infantry, draws from all races. The Croats have always had a great reputation for loyalty to the Austro-Hungarian Empire. They have been considered as the natural protectors of the border and the strong bulwark of the Empire on the southwest.



GENERAL VON KROBATIN,  
THE AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN  
MINISTER OF WAR

#### WHERE ARE THE VARIOUS ELEMENTS FIGHTING?

Where the Bohemians are located in the present operations is a mystery. They do not seem to be appearing either in the con-



ARCHDUKE FRIEDRICH (LEFT) WITH THE CHIEF OF  
THE GENERAL STAFF, VON HOETZENDORF



templated Servian expedition, or in the eastern operations against the Russians. It is conjectured that they are being used in France. The general distribution on the fighting zones of the various racial elements is not, of course, a matter of public knowledge. It is surmised, however, that not a few regiments are represented on the Western fighting line. Also, according to report, some of these Austrian troops in France have, for some strategic reason, exchanged uniforms with German soldiers.

In times of peace the military organization of the Empire is 50 per cent. Hungarian. Now the Hungarians compose two-thirds of the forces in the field. This is true of the new army for the invasion of Serbia, under Archduke Eugen, as well as of the armies on the eastern frontier. A large force of Bavarians helps to make up the balance of Eugen's army, while the other third of the force in the Carpathians is composed of Croats and Polish

volunteers. The Poles are said to be volunteering with a rapidity that promptly makes good all their losses in the field.

#### THE PERSONALITIES OF THE LEADERS

Hitherto these various racial elements have had their differences as among each other. This applies both to officers and men. With different national aims and ambitions, this was only natural. The German language, also, has long been a severe bone of contention in the army, the Austrian element insisting on its general use, and the Hungarians steadfastly resisting it. But now, it is claimed, conditions have changed, due to the facing of a common enemy. The military forces of the Dual Empire are reported to be acting together harmoniously for the common cause.

When it comes to the personalities of mili-

tary leaders, the situation is somewhat different from that of other nations. The Germans have their von Hindenberg, the French their Joffre, the Russians their Grand Duke Nicholas, and the English their General French. But Austria-Hungary has no military idol. This has been due to some extent to the system of the Austrian General Staff,

which has always exhibited a certain bureaucratic aloofness. The General Staff has also been responsible for the putting into the field of favored men who, while doubtless excellent theoretical strategists, did not fare so well in actual battle, and were, moreover, unable to establish sympathetic relations with their armies. Unlike the new leaders, Archduke Eugen and Archduke Joseph August, they were not popular with the masses. Probably the misfortunes attending the Russian and the Servian campaigns were in a measure due to these conditions. At any rate, reverses in the field were severe,



GENERAL CONRAD VON HOETZENDORF  
(Chief of the General Staff of the Austro-Hungarian Army)

discontent was brewing at home, and there seemed to be a demand for a change in leaders. There began, therefore, toward the end of the last year, a "weeding out" process.

The most striking example of these changes was the elimination of the ill-fated Field Marshal Potiorek,—a Bohemian by birth,—who conducted the Servian campaign last fall. Before the war General Potiorek was serving as chief of the government of Bosnia, and had also been connected with the operating bureau of the General Staff of the army. As a result of the initial successes of the Austrians in Servia, Potiorek was awarded signal honors by the Emperor Franz Joseph, only to incur, a little later, the wrath of his monarch and suffer dismissal for the subsequent reverses to the Austrian arms.

Other generals who were swept aside



GENERAL DANKL



GENERAL KUSMANEK



GENERAL VON BOJNA

were General Liborius Frank, who had entered Belgrade victoriously at the head of the Fifth Army Corps, and General Auffenberg, who, early in the war, had been placed at the head of an army corps and was concerned in the operations at Lublin. Auffenberg is a veteran of the Bosnian occupation of 1878, has served in important military capacities, performing notable service in the reorganization of military schools, and, in 1911, became Minister of War, in which post he was succeeded by General Krobatin in the following year.

Among the leaders that remain are, of course, first the Minister of War Krobatin. Alexander Krobatin has the rank of Field Marshal, and previously to his elevation to his present position had served as second in rank in the War Department. His particular military specialty is the artillery.

#### THE "KITCHENER" OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

Next to the Minister of War, the man on whose shoulders falls the greatest burden of army organization is Baron von Hoetzendorf, Chief of the General Staff. The chief of the Austro-Hungarian General Staff is the outstanding figure and chief factor in the army organization of the Dual Empire. "General Conrad,"

as he is known, is the Kitchener of Austria-Hungary. He has the full confidence of the aged Emperor, as well as of the rank and file of the army. He possesses unique qualifications and capacity for military organization.

In von Hoetzendorf's hands lies the direction of the armies of Austria-Hungary. Born near Vienna, Baron von Hoetzendorf is sixty-two years old, and has rendered almost continuous service to the Empire since leaving the military academy at Hainburg. With a thorough theoretic education, he has also had experience in the campaigns in Bosnia, South Dalmatia, and elsewhere.

#### A MASTER TACTICIAN

General von Hoetzendorf has a wide reputation in the field of strategy, his books on this subject holding first rank in military literature. His most celebrated work on the fundamental principles of tactics has been accepted as a text-book by all the war academies of the world. Von Hoetzendorf was placed at the head of the Austro-Hungarian army in 1906 by the late Archduke Franz Ferdinand, the victim of the assassination in Sarajevo, who was his great admirer and intimate friend. How he resigned, several years later, becomes interesting now, in view of the



ARCHDUKE LEOPOLD SALVATOR  
(Expert in artillery service)

situation that has developed between the two Southern members of the Triple Alliance.

General Conrad, as the head of the General Staff, had demanded that a systematic line of fortifications be built on the Austro-Italian border. News of this was received in Italy with great excitement, the entire press interpreting it as a distrust of Italy's faith as an ally. Austro-Hungarian diplomacy sided with Italy. General Conrad's plan, however, received the strong support of the late Archduke Franz Ferdinand. But when the matter was put before the old Emperor, the late Minister of Foreign Affairs, Count Aehrenthal, was successful in his opposition, and the plan failed, whereupon General Conrad resigned. But in 1912 he was recalled to the post of Chief of Staff. The Emperor-King, who is himself a great admirer of General Conrad, has conferred on him the distinguished honor, — given, according to Hapsburg custom, only to royal personages, — of the office of Patron of the 39th Infantry Regiment. General Conrad's military genius is exhibited in an episode that occurred some years ago, when the notorious Redel, a Lieutenant-Colonel in the Austro-Hungarian General Staff, sold to Russia the entire mobilization system of Austria-Hungary. Such a system takes years to work out. But, within two years, General Conrad had created an entirely new system of mobilization.

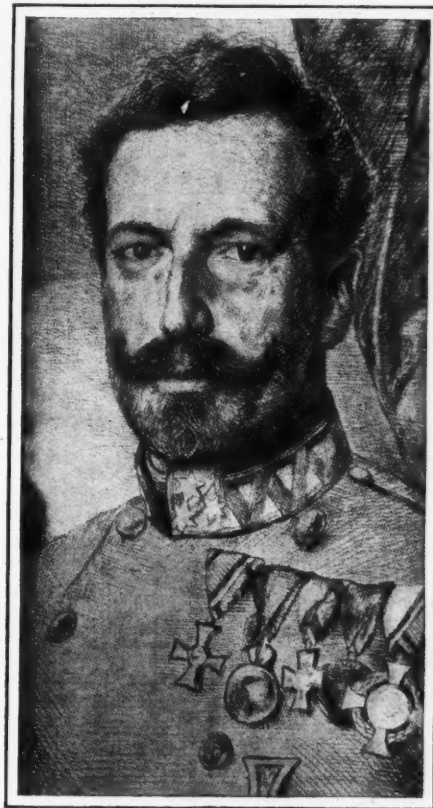
#### THE ACTIVE ARCHDUKES

Closely associated with the Chief of Staff in the work of army mobilization and organization was the Archduke Friedrich, who has been attached to the army since 1871. He

was born at Gross-Seelowitz, and is in his fifty-ninth year. Friedrich's activities have been confined to the infantry branch, his principal service having been in the organization of the Austrian Landwehr, of which he has been chief since 1907.

Archduke Joseph Augustin, the son of the late Archduke Joseph (who, together with

his entire family, was given the name of the "Palatinus Hungarian Hapsburgs" as a token of affection by the Hungarian people) owes it to his great popularity that he was placed at the head of an army, after the dismissal of various of the Austro-Hungarian generals. The young Archduke Joseph carefully cultivated his great popularity, which his father and grandfather (the last Hungarian Palatine) gained from the Hungarian people. At the present time the task of his army is to bear the brunt of the Russian attacks in the Carpathians, and, — as can easily be seen from the newspapers of Hungary, — the Hungarian troops surround this "Hungarian Hapsburg" with much enthusiasm. Archduke Jo-



ARCHDUKE EUGEN  
(The new commander of the Austro-Hungarian expedition against the Servians)

seph has already proved his bravery on more than one occasion. How he will succeed as a tactician and strategist is a secret for the future to reveal. While not famous for military talent, Archduke Joseph gained much of his popularity with the Hungarians by making his residence in Budapest. He is looked upon as a probability for the Hungarian throne, in the event of Hungary's emergence as a separate national entity.

#### EUGEN—NEW LEADER AGAINST THE SERBS

Selected to head the new invasion of Serbia, it is on the Archduke Eugen that the hopes

of Austria for recovering her lost laurels in this direction have been placed. Eugen,—general of cavalry, army inspector, and commander in Tyrol and Vorarlberg,—was born at Gross-Seelowitz in 1863. The Archduke is an extraordinarily cool and resolute man, well versed in the science of warfare and one of the ablest generals in the Austro-Hungarian army. One of his first moves in preparing for the Servian invasion,—according to report,—has been the banishing of the Servian contingent from his forces. There is a certain mystery about the personality of the Archduke Eugen. Another thing about him, peculiar as related to the Hapsburg dynasty, is that he is a bachelor. And a further peculiarity is that he actually has military talent. After a gay and boisterous life as a young man, Archduke Eugen took upon himself the duty of Grand Master of one of the sovereign Knightly Orders,—which the tradition respecting the Hapsburg dynasty nominally supports,—and led the required secluded life of the order. But his military talent has predestined him for a most difficult task, that of replacing the deposed General Potiorek in the southern war operations. Eugen is not so closely attached to his troops as is Joseph, but his widely esteemed knowledge of military science insures for him the confidence of the armies under his command.

#### THE MAN WHO HOLDS PRZEMYSŁ

One of the outstanding Austrian war heroes is General Hermann Rudolf Kusmanek, whose great distinction has come as the defender of Przemyśl. Kusmanek is a Bohemian and is another real military genius. For his heroic resistance in the defense of the great Austrian stronghold against repeated Russian onslaughts, General Kusmanek has been recognized with high honors by the Emperor Franz Joseph. Born in 1860, Kusmanek was educated at the Vienna Neustadt Military Academy, of which he later became an officer, and was subsequently attached to the General Staff.

Another soldier who has won distinction in Austria's battles against the Russians, and who remains in active service, is General

Victor Dankl, who led the forces at Krasnik in south Poland last August. Dankl is a general of cavalry, and was born in 1854. Attending the military Academy of Vienna-Neustadt, he began his army career as lieutenant of dragoons. After serving with the General Staff, he became Chief of Staff of a cavalry division, then chief of the General Staff of the 13th Corps, and later Chief of the Direction Bureau of the General Staff and Major-General commanding the 36th infantry division at Agram and Innsbruck. Dankl distinguished himself in the grand maneuvers of 1908, and in the present war operations has displayed conspicuous genius.

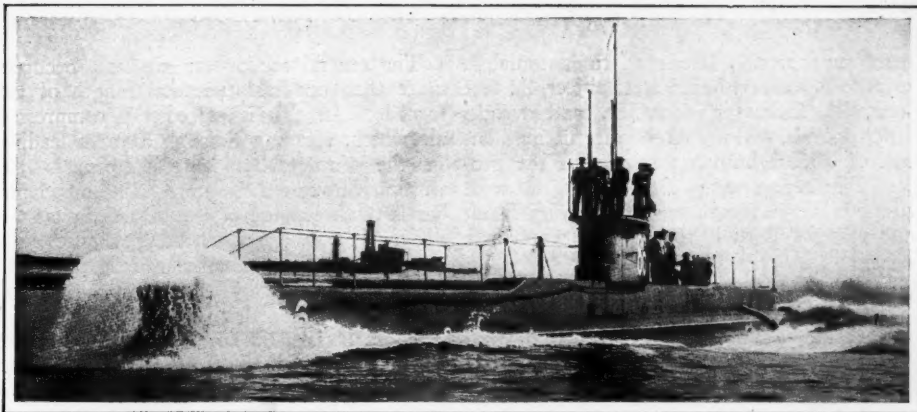
#### THE HEIR TO THE THRONE IS ALSO ACTIVE

The Heir Presumptive to the throne, Karl Franz Joseph, is also active in military affairs. The young Archduke has participated in the operations of the army since the opening of the war, and has also, on occasion, journeyed to the German Emperor's headquarters for conferences. It was he, according to report, who presided at the conference early in January on the question as to whether there should be a fresh offensive against Servia, and favored such an undertaking.

Besides these leaders mentioned, there are many able corps commanders who are serving with great distinction in the field, but whose names seldom appear in print. There is very little news, in fact, allowed to come out in the papers of Austria-Hungary now. The publication of anything but the barest statements contained in the official bulletins is severely discouraged. Reports of military operations, or of internal conditions in the Empire, are not easy to obtain. That there is a strong determination to recover lost laurels is, however, apparent. The decision to enter upon this new expedition into Servia, and the renewed resistance to Russian invasion, coupled with the accession of German forces and a change of commanders, show that Austria-Hungary has girded herself afresh and is bending every energy for a supreme effort to recover her lost prestige and to maintain the integrity of the Dual Empire.







BRITAIN'S LATEST SUBMARINE

(One of the "E" class—among the largest and most powerful under-water craft in the world)

# BATTLESHIP VS. SUBMARINE

## I.—THE SUBMARINE'S WEAPON— THE TORPEDO

*Will the German submarines be able to whittle down the British navy by successive attack until it is on a more even fighting level with the German Navy?*

*Admiral von Tirpitz, the head of the German Navy, is a strong believer in the efficacy of the submarine (as is also the noted naval expert of England, Admiral Sir Percy Scott), placing more reliance on this type of craft for a destructive campaign against England than on Zeppelins.*

*Von Tirpitz's recent suggestion for throwing a ring of these vessels about Great Britain lends increased interest to the subject of the submarine and its power.*

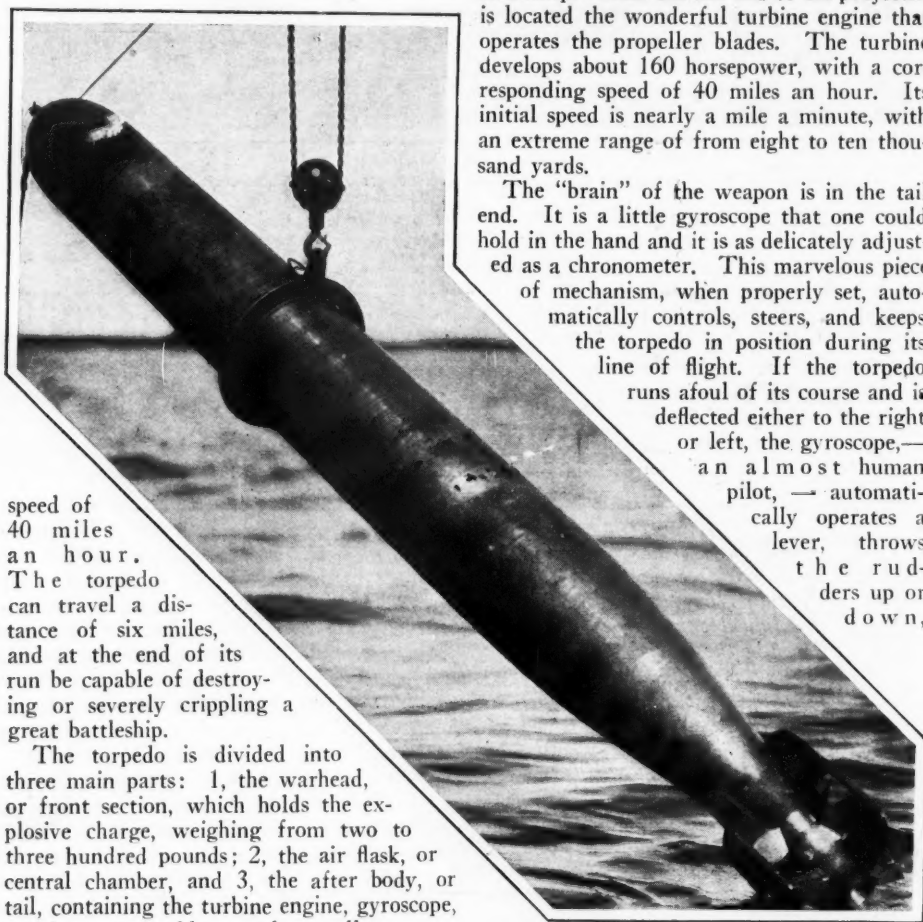
*The following description is prepared for our readers by a competent expert.—THE EDITOR.*

THE performances of both German and English submarines in the present war have lifted this class of sea fighters to a place of high importance. Certain eminent authorities, in fact,—like Admiral Sir Percy Scott, of England,—are of opinion that the submarine has sounded the death-knell of the dreadnoughts, and that to build more of these costly battleships is sheer waste of money. American naval experts, also, in the course of the Congressional inquiry into our national defenses last month, testified to the formidable character of this branch of naval warfare. To date submarines have done extremely effective work, well-nigh a round dozen war vessels,—English, German, Russian, and Turkish,—having so far succumbed to their attacks. Indeed, until last month's sea fights off the coast of South America the under-sea raiders had scored the highest total of definite results. The sensational success of the submarine lends interest to the remarkable weapon with which it does its work of destruction,—the torpedo. The jackies dub it the "tin fish," and the "Percy Scott," after its ar-

dent supporter. The modern automobile torpedo is a cigar-shaped steel object, 22 feet long, 21 inches in diameter, and weighs 2000 pounds. With its wonderful mechanism of almost human intelligence, the projectile in action seems almost to throb with life. It dives like a porpoise, steers itself, and ploughs invisibly through the water at a

The central section, or air-flask, occupies more than one-half the total length of the torpedo. In this is stored the compressed air which, escaping through a valve leading to the tiny turbine engine, propels the weapon through the water. The air chamber is to the engine of the torpedo what the boiler is to the reciprocating engine of a steamship. Near the tail-end of the projectile is located the wonderful turbine engine that operates the propeller blades. The turbine develops about 160 horsepower, with a corresponding speed of 40 miles an hour. Its initial speed is nearly a mile a minute, with an extreme range of from eight to ten thousand yards.

The "brain" of the weapon is in the tail end. It is a little gyroscope that one could hold in the hand and it is as delicately adjusted as a chronometer. This marvelous piece of mechanism, when properly set, automatically controls, steers, and keeps the torpedo in position during its line of flight. If the torpedo runs afoul of its course and is deflected either to the right or left, the gyroscope, — an almost human pilot, — automatically operates a lever, throws the rudders up or down,



speed of 40 miles an hour. The torpedo can travel a distance of six miles, and at the end of its run be capable of destroying or severely crippling a great battleship.

The torpedo is divided into three main parts: 1, the warhead, or front section, which holds the explosive charge, weighing from two to three hundred pounds; 2, the air flask, or central chamber, and 3, the after body, or tail, containing the turbine engine, gyroscope, steering-gear, rudders, and propellers.

One of the most ingenious and vital parts of the whole mechanism is a small propeller for preventing the premature explosion of the torpedo. It is located at the extreme point, or "nose" of the warhead. It accomplishes this by locking the firing pin. When the torpedo enters the water on being fired from the submarine or destroyer, the revolutions of the propellers release a "sleeve" which uncovers the firing pin. This puts it in position to strike the detonating primer and explode the charge the instant the torpedo finds its mark.

A CLOSE VIEW OF A MODERN 21-INCH TORPEDO

(The extreme front is the war head, carrying 300 pounds of explosive; the center section is the compressed air chamber for operating the engine of the projectile during its run. The tail contains the turbine engine and mechanism for steering the torpedo while on its course)

and to the right or left, bringing the torpedo back to its proper path.

It takes almost a thousand pieces of steel, brass, and bronze to make up all the delicate, ingenious, and automatic adjustments of the interior mechanism of a modern torpedo.

The torpedo is fired from a tube about twenty feet long, located either in the body

of a submarine or on the deck of a destroyer. This tube is well greased inside, to enable the torpedo to slide out easily. Before pushing the shell home, the air chamber is filled with compressed air to drive the engine during the torpedo's run. An impulse charge of compressed air is also employed for launching the torpedo out of the tube. Promptly upon striking the water all the interior mechanism and automatic contrivances of the torpedo come to life. The turbine engine and the propellers start immediately, driving the torpedo at a swift pace straight towards the target. After dealing its blow, the missile disappears in its own ruin,—or, in case of a miss, its motor power gradually runs down, and the torpedo becomes a floating, dangerous mine.

The United States Navy is placing great importance upon these under-water weapons, and the latest type adopted for service is now being manufactured at the new government torpedo factory, at Newport, R. I. On board the U. S. S. *Montana*, Uncle Sam

conducts a school, equipped with modern torpedo installations. Here the rising generation of sea fighters is drilled in the science of torpedo warfare,—handling, aiming, and firing the shell, in the same manner as in actual warfare. The latest type of torpedo, shown in the accompanying illustration, with its thousand-odd complicated adjustments, requires one year to build and costs over \$6000.

So far, the warships destroyed by the torpedo have been mostly old vessels, not designed to withstand under-water torpedo attacks. The decisive test of the torpedo in modern warfare will come when it is launched against the recently constructed super-dreadnoughts, with all their protecting devices, such as double bottom, inner and outer skin, bulkheads, water-tight compartments, etc. A decisive trial of this character would throw much light on the question of the relative value of battleship and submarine, and would also, of course, vitally affect naval construction policies.

## II.—THE BATTLESHIP'S DEFENSE

*Can a battleship protect itself against submarine attack? Or is even the modern super-dreadnought, a floating fortress costing a round ten million dollars, and carrying a complement of a thousand human lives, doomed to submit to a deadly submarine stab, and settle down forthwith to a watery grave?*

*With the under-water craft and its weapon developed to the present degree of deadliness, the problem of protection for battleships against this form of attack is pressing and vital. We present in the following brief article an expert's views of the various methods at present available for protection against submarines.*—THE EDITOR.

THE events of the present war seem to prove that if a torpedo gets home, the warship that is struck is doomed. The loss of the armored cruisers *Aboukir*, *Cressy* and *Hogue*, built in 1900, and the battleship *Formidable*, completed about the same time, show that protection by elaborate subdivision below the water line does not protect. Or, rather, it proves that the system in vogue at the time those vessels were built is insufficient to withstand the heavy charges of high explosive which are carried in the warhead of the latest torpedoes.

The most modern weapons in our navy are charged with 300 pounds of explosive. The Germans, sacrificing air supply and engine power for explosive, use, in their submarine

service, a short-range, moderate-speed torpedo, carrying the enormous charge of 420 pounds. It is doubtful if the very latest dreadnought, in spite of its elaborate system of bulkheading and the provision of special torpedo-defense cofferdams or chambers, would survive the smashing and wrenching effect of the blow of one of these weapons.

### THE USE OF A TORPEDO NET

If internal protection is ineffective, or rather insufficient, what other means of defense external to the ship is available? The best-known of these is the torpedo-net, slung from booms and surrounding the ship at a distance sufficient to prevent the shock of explosion from injuring the hull. Theoretically

cally, the net is supposed to offer sufficient resistance to detonate the explosive charge; but of late years net-cutters, attached to the torpedo, have been developed, which have proved successful in breaching the net and permitting the torpedo to pass through unexploded. The net offers great obstruction when a ship is in motion; it is serviceable only when a fleet is at rest; and some navies, including our own, make no use of it.

#### MINES FOR DEFENSE WHILE IN HARBORS

The most effective protection for a fleet which, like that of Germany, has taken refuge in its harbors, is the mine-field laid in the approaches to the harbor and the provision of anchored booms of sufficient strength to prevent the passage of torpedo boats and destroyers. Frequently these booms have suspended below them heavy netting and interlacing cables, as a protection against the passage of submarines.

#### A PROTECTIVE SCREEN OF DESTROYERS

When a battleship fleet takes to the open its defense against torpedo attack is twofold. First, it is protected by a screen of destroyers, steaming in wedge-shaped formation in the van, and in parallel lines on each side of the battleship column. It is the duty of this screen to meet the destroyer attack of the enemy, sink or drive off his flotillas, and prevent them from getting within firing range of the main fleet. Should the enemy destroyers break through, reliance must be placed on the torpedo-defense batteries of the battleships, which consist of rapid-fire, 5 and 6-inch guns, capable of pouring upon the destroyers a perfect storm of high-explosive shells.

The present war has proved that a most

effective defense is the possession, by the ship attacked, of high-speed and quick-turning power. The course of a torpedo is plainly visible because of the white streak of air bubbles caused by the air exhaust from the torpedo engine.

#### QUICK MANEUVERING MOST EFFECTIVE

According to the testimony of eye witnesses on the ships engaged in the Heligoland fight, the fast battle-cruisers, scouts and destroyers engaged on the British side, thanks to their speeds of nearly thirty knots, were able to avoid the torpedoes by quick maneuvering.

And just here it should be mentioned that the same qualities of speed and maneuvering ability are proving to be the best protection against the submarine. Before the latter can launch its torpedo with accuracy it must bring its periscope above the surface to determine if the submarine is pointing true at the ship attacked. If the battleship is accompanied, as it should always be, by destroyers, and a keen lookout is kept, the chances of sighting the submarine are fairly good. If it should be sighted, the destroyer is headed, full speed, for the submarine in the attempt to ram it, and several of the submarine craft have been sunk or disabled in this way during the war.

#### ALSO, VISIBLE FROM AN AEROPLANE

Lastly, there is the aeroplane. Experiments have shown that submarines are visible from an aeroplane in clear and smooth water, even when they are submerged to depths of from fifty to one hundred feet. Here is a form of protection that may prove to be a complete answer to that invisibility which is the chief asset of submarine warfare.



Photograph by American Press Association

A TORPEDO NET BEING HAULED ABOARD A BATTLESHIP



# THE RED CROSS AT WORK

BY WINTHROP D. LANE

THOSE who have had the misfortune to be caught by flood, forest fire, or earthquake, may know at first hand what the Red Cross is and how it works in time of peace. But even for them its activities in war are mysterious and secret. What does it accomplish and how does it accomplish this? What is its relation to an actual battle, before, during, and after the fighting? What is its official status and how has it come into existence? For most people these questions remain unanswered.

In June, 1859, near the little village of Solferino, Italy, occurred the memorable battle of that name, in which the French and Sardinians were arrayed against the Austrians. The fighting raged over a wide reach of country and continued for sixteen hours; at its close 16,000 French and Sardinian soldiers and 20,000 Austrians lay dead or disabled on the field. The medical staff was wholly inadequate to care for the wounded. For days after the battle many of the dead remained unburied, and the wounded lay where they fell or crawled away as best they could for shelter and help.

A Swiss gentleman, Henri Dunant by name, happened to be traveling near that battlefield. Deeply impressed by the suffering he saw, he joined in the work of relief, and organized for the first time *corps of volunteers* to search for and nurse the wounded. But the inadequacy of this service and the consequent suffering of the wounded haunted him afterwards and impelled him to write a book recounting his experiences and asking: "Would it not be possible to establish in every country of Europe aid societies, whose aim would be to provide, during war, volunteer nurses for the wounded, without distinction of nationality?"

## THE TREATY OF GENEVA

The agitation of M. Dunant interested others and by the fall of 1863 sympathy with his views had been expressed by persons in so many countries that it was possible to call an international convention to answer his question. This convention met in Geneva in the autumn of the following year. It framed the Treaty of Geneva, sometimes called the "Red Cross Treaty," and imme-

diately secured the signatures of eleven governments to this document. Since then nearly every other country has subscribed.

The Treaty of Geneva did not create National Red Cross organizations. It was merely an agreement by the signing powers to recognize the neutrality of and extend certain immunities to all field hospitals, sanitary supplies, ambulances, surgeons, nurses, and attendants, wearing the sign of a red cross on a white field. This sign was chosen out of compliment to the Swiss republic, the colors of which are a white cross on a red ground. The treaty was revised by a second Geneva Convention in 1906.

## EACH NATION HAS ITS OWN ORGANIZATION

Under the encouragement afforded by this treaty, national Red Cross societies have since been formed independently in the countries signing the treaty. They have sprung up in various ways and are called by various names, though the words "Red Cross" appear in the titles of nearly all of them. The framers of the treaty foresaw that national differences would prevent a universal code of management and that each country would have to be left free to establish and regulate its own society in accordance with its own ideas and the spirit of its institutions.

Thus, the British Red Cross Society had its origin in "The National Society for Aid to Sick and Wounded in War," formed as a result of the suffering that occurred in the Franco-German war of 1870. In 1905 all the British associations concerned with the succor of sick and wounded soldiers were combined into the present organization. The Red Cross Society of Japan, one of the largest and most efficient, had its origin in the *Haku-ai-sha*, or Charity Association, founded during a civil war in 1877; by an imperial ordinance issued in December, 1901, it was "authorized to assist the sanitary service of the Army and the Navy within the limits fixed by the Ministers of the Army and of the Navy." The American National Red Cross was organized in 1881 as "The American National Association of the Red Cross," and was granted its present charter and name by Congress in 1905.

Red Cross societies first came into exist-

ence, it will be seen, as agencies to ameliorate the suffering of warfare. Most of them are now organized to alleviate suffering both in peace and war. Our own society has emphasized peace activities, but in this it differs from most European societies, which have tended rather to stress the military aspects of organization.

Each of the national societies formed as a result of the Treaty of Geneva is a voluntary agency, recognized by its own government and authorized to attach itself to the sanitary forces of the army in event of war. The Red Cross is thus additional to the regular military medical and nursing service. Each society is subject to the provisions of the 1906 Treaty of Geneva. Each adopts whatever methods seem to it best to prepare in time of peace for service in time of war. All conduct campaigns for money and aim to be ready with as effective hospital, nursing, and surgical service as possible. Most of the societies are membership organizations, membership amounting merely to the payment of stated dues.

There is no international Red Cross society. An International Red Cross Committee, with headquarters at Geneva, acts as a communicating agent of the national societies and studies methods of amelioration and relief, but it is not itself a relief agency. During the present war this committee has established a Prisoners' Bureau at Geneva, the purpose of which is to transmit information of the sick and wounded prisoners of all countries to their families. It also acts as a prisoners' post-office, a report in October declaring that 3000 letters were received daily.

#### IN WAR, SUBJECT TO MILITARY AUTHORITY

Let us now see what happens when two or more countries go to war. First, every belligerent must notify each of its enemies, if it has not already done so, of the names of the societies that are authorized to render assistance in the official medical service of its armies. The Red Cross is the chief, in some instances the only one, of these societies.

When this notification has been given, the personnel (nurses, surgeons, litter-bearers, etc.) and equipment of the Red Cross enter the field subject to military laws and regulations; that is, the Red Cross forces take orders from the military authorities. In so far as the conditions of modern warfare permit, they must be respected and protected by the enemy. If one of their number is accidentally shot in long-range fighting, this is looked upon as a matter that cannot be helped. But

if they fall into the hands of the enemy, they are not to be regarded as prisoners of war; in such a case, they may be compelled to continue in the exercise of their functions under the enemy's direction. While they remain in his power, he must grant them the same pay and allowances granted to persons of the same grade in his own army. When their assistance is no longer indispensable he must send them back to their own army or country in such manner as military necessity dictates, and he must permit them to take with them their private property. The protection due them from the enemy ceases if they commit acts injurious to him. They may, however, arm themselves and use arms in self-defense.

#### NURSES AND DOCTORS STATIONED IN HOSPITALS

For the most part, of course, the personnel of Red Cross societies do not get into actual fighting. They are stationed in hospitals, at fixed medical bases, or in the rear of the firing line. In the latter case, they go over the field after the battle and carry off the wounded. The Treaty of Geneva requires that after every engagement the belligerent who remains in possession of the field of battle shall search for the wounded and protect both wounded and dead from ill treatment, without distinction of nationality.

The Red Cross society of a neutral state can lend its services to a belligerent only with the prior consent of its own government and the authority of the belligerent, and the belligerent must then notify his enemies before making any use of such services. The American National Red Cross has made this offer to each of the countries now at war, and the offer has been accepted by all. The nurses and doctors sent from this country are being used exclusively, so far as is known, in hospitals.

The principles of the revised Treaty of Geneva were extended to maritime warfare by the Hague Convention in 1907. For the most part the agreement then signed secures the same protection and immunities to hospital ships that the prior agreement secured to official relief forces on land. In naval warfare the Red Cross can be of service chiefly by providing hospital ships, which aim to remain at a convenient distance from the scene of battle, and by caring for the sick and wounded when transferred to hospitals on land.

#### INADEQUACY OF THE SERVICE

The foregoing are the mandatory provisions of the "Red Cross Treaty" of 1906.

How far they are carried out must depend ultimately, of course, upon the willingness of belligerents and what is called "military necessity." Reports have reached us of ill treatment accorded those wearing the Red Cross badge in the present war, but of the authenticity of these it is impossible to judge.

One thing is certain, however, about the Red Cross societies now with the European armies. This is that they are totally inadequate to the task confronting them. Of this we have first-hand evidence. Ernest P. Bicknell, national director of the American Red Cross, who has administered relief after some of the greatest disasters of modern times, entered the interior of Germany and France in September. When he returned he said to the writer:

None of the accounts reaching this country overstate the total inadequacy of all existing machinery for taking care of those who fall in battle. Try to estimate the task. Altogether 7,000,000 or 8,000,000 men are facing each other along 1000 miles of battlefield. The terrible effectiveness of modern weapons was never given so great a chance to show itself.

The plain truth is that over the thousands of square miles already battle-swept, countless thousands of men have been left wounded and helpless. No one knows the numbers,—no one can know. When I was in Berlin five trains left the city in one day, simply to get wounded and bring them back to the city. The number of daily trains increased after that. Berlin, Paris and London are literally filling up with wounded and sick soldiers. The public and private hospitals have been filled. Public buildings are being used to house them and many private homes are now being thrown open.

In the villages and countryside lie thousands of men who have not seen either doctor or nurse. Some of them crawl into peasants' houses, but no one knows how many are lying under hay stacks, in the lee of cattle-sheds, or beneath the glare of the sun, and the drive of the rain in ditches and along the roadside. It is there that the great humanitarian work of this war must be done.

Now to meet this unprecedented call no human prearrangements could have been adequate. The Red Cross societies in Europe are thoroughly efficient and are organized primarily for war relief. But they cannot meet the present crisis. They simply cannot get doctors and nurses enough.

They are trying hard. The British Red Cross Society accepted 500 members of the Salvation Army at one time simply to go to the front in Belgium and France as litter-bearers, orderlies, attendants, etc. The German society has accepted the services of hundreds of Catholic sisters to act as nurses.

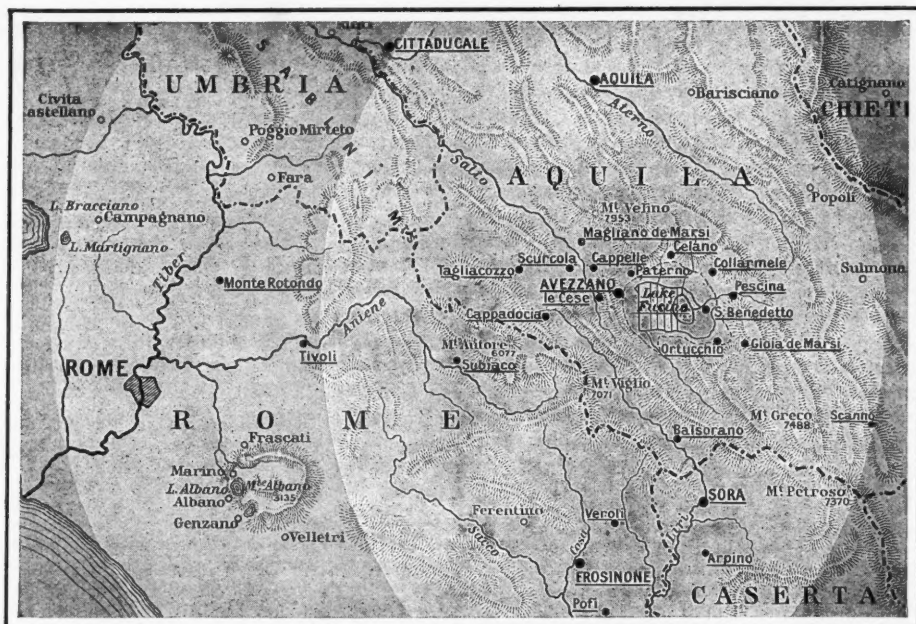
Hopeless as the situation appears, something can be done about it. There are enough nurses and doctors in the world, willing to go to the scene of need, to help thousands of these poor fellows not now receiving help. The problem is to get them there. It costs money. The forces of mercy have got to be mobilized as effectively as the forces of destruction. The fighting nations cannot do it adequately and promptly. It is in large measure up to the non-fighting countries of the world. It is up to America. The American Red Cross, which has already sent 138 nurses and 30 doctors, could send every one of its 5000 enrolled nurses and not exceed the need.

This was the condition five months ago. By early January the American Red Cross had been able to bring the number of its nurses up to 150 and of its doctors up to 45! It had also sent a considerable quantity of medical and nursing supplies.



Photograph by American Press Association

GERMAN RED CROSS GATHERING THE WOUNDED AND DEAD ON THE FIELD AT PERONNE



THE EARTHQUAKE ZONE OF JANUARY 13, 1915  
(The devastated area is shown in light shading)

# THE SETTING OF THE RECENT ITALIAN EARTHQUAKE

BY JOHN L. RICH

(Department of Geology, University of Illinois)

**T**HROUGHOUT historic times Italy has been visited again and again by earthquakes of the most destructive kind. These disturbances have occurred now in one part of the country, now in another. Scarcely a single locality is entirely free from them, though some parts have suffered much less than others. Among the areas most frequently shaken are the "toe" of Italy, Calabria, and the entire Apennine range.

On the accompanying map the area devastated by the earthquake of January 13, 1915, is shown in detail.

The center of the disturbance, round the basin of the former Lake Fucino, together with practically the entire region from which severe damage has been reported, is included within the area, roughly forty miles long by twenty miles wide, covered by the map. A few towns outside this area are mentioned as having been damaged more or less, but evidently no more than should be expected

from their proximity to the seat of disturbance.

The earthquake district lies in the very heart of the Apennine Mountains, fifty miles due east of Rome. For the most part it is exceedingly rough. The mountains rise to elevations of 6000 to 8000 feet, while the valley bottoms lie at about 2100 feet. The slopes are very steep and rocky and, in most places, the valleys are deep and narrow.

## EARTH MOVEMENTS IN A SUNKEN AREA

A notable exception to this condition is found in the neighborhood of the basin of Lake Fucino, where the topographic features are so abnormal that they arrest the attention at once. A glance at the map will show that the lake lay in the center of a nearly level plain, roughly twelve miles long by eight miles wide, set down, as it were, into the midst of one of the most rugged parts of the Apennines.

The rectilinear outlines of this sunken



area, cutting as they do across the trend of the mountains, seem to indicate clearly that at some earlier time a block of the mountains has dropped down to form the basin of the lake. Other evidences, too, such as the very presence of so large an undrained depression as the old lake basin, and the occurrence of similar though smaller marshy lowlands to the northwest and west, go to show that comparatively recent movements of the earth's crust have taken place in the vicinity and have interfered seriously with drainage.

It is significant that the place of origin of the recent earthquake should have been within or immediately around this sunken area. This coincidence, taken in connection with the fact that the immediate region is not volcanic, leaves little doubt in the mind of the geologist that further earth movements of the same sort as those which produced the lake basin were responsible for the recent earthquake.

#### "FAULTING" OF THE EARTH'S CRUST

It is a well-known fact that the majority of the severest earthquakes are produced by such movements and readjustments of the outer shell of the earth. The process, known to geologists as *faulting*, is as follows: Owing to various subterranean causes, the solid crust of the earth is put under stress. The stresses keep growing greater until finally they reach the breaking-point of the rocks. These yield suddenly and move over one another along the line of fracture until the strain is relieved. This breaking of the rocks, sometimes along lines hundreds of miles in length, and the movement of the broken parts over one another, set up jars or vibrations which, traveling outward in all directions through the rocks, constitute an earthquake. The severity of the shock at any point on the earth's surface depends upon the character and extent of the break, the amount of movement, and the distance of the point from the place of origin of the disturbance.

Earthquakes also occur frequently in connection with volcanic eruptions, but these are likely to be more local in character and, on the whole, less severe than those due to faulting.

#### SHOCKS MORE SEVERE ON ALLUVIAL LANDS

Earthquake vibrations as they travel through solid rock are, as a rule, not of great magnitude, but as they pass from rock into loose formations such as sand, gravel, or alluvium, especially if it is wet, their size

(amplitude) increases many fold while their frequency diminishes. The loose earth is shaken together and often thrown into distinct waves, much as a plate of jelly might be. As a result of this, earthquake shocks are apt to be much more destructive to buildings founded upon such loose formations than to those which rest upon solid rock. The significance of this principle will appear when we consider the situations of certain of the villages and cities most damaged by the recent earthquake.

Although newspaper accounts are somewhat conflicting and uncertain, there is sufficient agreement to make it clear that practically every town located round the borders of the basin of Lake Fucino was either destroyed or badly damaged; that a similar fate overtook those on the lowland northwest of the lake basin at least to and beyond Magliano dei Marsi; and that nearly all the villages in the valley of Liri River for a distance of thirty miles between Tagliacozzo and Sora were badly damaged and some of them destroyed. Sora, a good-sized city situated upon an alluvial plain where Liri River emerges from the mountains, also suffered severely.

From the meager reports which have come to this country it is impossible to determine the exact locations of the faults along which the crustal movements took place, but enough has come through to indicate that there were at least two lines of movement, one along the sharp, straight mountain ridge just west of Avezzano, and the other along the west side of the Liri valley. The reports say that "the terrific force of the earthquake cracked the mountains near Luco (Lucco?)," and "Mount Pizzodetta between Balsorano and Roccacerro was cut in two by an immense fissure which is visible at a great distance." These are evidently the surface traces of the faults which caused the catastrophe.

It is significant that most of the larger towns in the region are located upon soft alluvial formations: Avezzano, San Benedetto, Ortucchio, and apparently Capelle and Magliano dei Marsi are all founded upon the alluvial deposits which floor the basin of Lake Fucino and its northwestern continuation; Sora lies on an alluvial plain in a small basin traversed by Liri River just after it emerges from the mountains. Without doubt the severity of the earthquake shocks in all these cities was greater than it would have been had they not been located upon alluvial lands.

## PEOPLE CROWDED IN BADLY BUILT HOUSES

A large number of the smaller towns which were damaged are mere mountain hamlets which shelter the agricultural and pastoral population of these rough lands. The custom, prevalent over large parts of Europe, for the peasantry to live in small villages rather than in scattered farmhouses doubtless explains the great number of fatalities in country districts, for the tendency in the villages is always toward building larger houses and crowding more people into each than would be the case if scattered houses were the custom.

Another factor which has always been directly responsible for the enormous number of fatalities in the Italian earthquakes is the prevailing custom of building the dwellings several stories high and constructing them of rubble held together by inferior cement with the sidewalls improperly tied together. Such structures, in a region where earthquakes are frequent, are veritable deadfalls. All reports indicate that this factor played its usual conspicuous part in causing the enormous loss of life in the Avezzano earthquake. In this connection it is significant that in the city of Avezzano the few modern buildings of structural steel and concrete are reported to have withstood the

shock, while the prevailing structures of brick and rubble collapsed utterly.

The recent earthquake had much in common with that which destroyed Messina and Reggio in 1908. Earth movements in connection with faulting were the cause of both. In the case of Messina the movement took place along one or more of the great faults which pass through the Strait of Messina, and it was along the strait that the greatest damage was done. Both Messina and Reggio are located upon alluvial deposits and suffered much more than neighboring villages founded upon rock. Finally, the character of the buildings at Messina, as in the region recently devastated, was the greatest single factor in causing loss of life. Omori, the noted Japanese seismologist, after studying the Messina disaster, estimated that 998 out of every 1000 who perished in Messina were victims of poor construction of houses.

The only safety in regions where the earth is as unstable as in the Apennines, lies in following the practise of the Japanese and constructing buildings which either will not shake down easily or are so light that they do comparatively little damage when they fall. In a country like Italy, where timber is relatively scarce, such precautions, except in the larger cities, are beset with great practical difficulties.



RUINS OF AVEZZANO

# FINDING BETTER SEEDS FOR THE WORLD'S FOOD SUPPLY

BY B. E. POWELL

(University of Illinois)

[Never before the opening of the present season has there been such intense interest in the yield of food crops, and the whole world will be observing anxiously the question of cereal surpluses in the United States, the climatic conditions under which the great Canadian wheat crop will this year be produced, and, above all, the success of Germany in the national supervision of the agricultural season of 1915. The authorities in the United States, Canada, and Germany have been giving great attention to prolific and valuable seeds, both of cereals and other food crops.—THE EDITOR.]

It is conceded, in theory at least, that to be well-born is a right. It is known that to come of unfavorable environment, of curing nicely hatched—from the ancestral standing bad habits in the plant kingdom, of inpoint—is distinct cause for congratulation, ceasing the yields by attention to ancestors, and of breeding for a particular content, may be cited. We are now discovering that to give the plants the best available grandfathers is the part of wisdom. Just what are the fundamental laws of inheritance that make for the best products is known only to a limited extent. However, "like produces like" with sufficient frequency to make it profitable to seize upon a noteworthy individual when one appears in the field. And there is no subject to which the mind of man attaches itself more eagerly than this very subject of inheritance.

Therefore, all over the land scientists are engaged in tying little paper bags over sweetpeas and other blossoms, that no outside pollen may come a-lovemaking and destroy the purity of their cherished strains. It is hoped that underlying laws of inheritance, applicable throughout the plant and animal worlds, may be found. Then, as an instance of what will be possible, an apple with a rosy skin and a Grimes Golden flavor may be produced at the will of the breeder. For the rosy apple has the appeal to sentiment that opens the purse, while the Grimes Golden flavor has the appeal to the palate that brings the purchaser back to the same market.

Many interesting examples of the overcoming of unfavorable environment, of curing bad habits in the plant kingdom, of increasing the yields by attention to ancestors, and of breeding for a particular content, may be cited. Also plant breeders are forming from their close observations interesting theories of inheritance that may prove right, partly right, or entirely wrong when full knowledge perches upon the banner of application. But right or wrong, they are the result of honest endeavor and worthy of respectful consideration.

## A WHEAT THAT THRIVES IN ALKALI

An interesting example of overcoming unfavorable environment comes from Illinois. Under the direction of Dr. L. H. Smith, of the Illinois Agricultural Experiment Station, investigations were carried on that resulted in finding a kind of wheat that would grow in alkaline soils. It had been supposed that wheat would not grow in alkaline soils; and as people who live upon alkaline soils are quite as fond of bread as those who do not, it was distinctly inconvenient.



SHOWING HEREDITARY POWER TO RESIST ALKALI

(Third generation of resistant plants compared with ordinary plants growing in same soil)

The experiments were made with an ordinary variety of wheat known as Minnesota 169. In most of the pots that were given strong doses of the alkali the wheat refused to grow, or sent up sickly spindling plants



TWO PURE STRAINS OF TURKEY RED WHEAT AFTER A HEAVY WIND SHOWING THE DIFFERENCE IN LODGING (NEBRASKA EXPERIMENT STATION)

that were a disgrace to the whole wheat family. But the kernel in one pot was undaunted by the alkali. It grew strong, thrifty, full of promise. Its offspring inherited the same power and handed it down through the generations. Literally the enemy had been routed on his own soil.

#### A WHEAT THAT WILL NOT LODGE

Again, certain habits of grain that are destructive of profits have been overcome. Professor C. G. Williams, of the Ohio Experiment Station, noticed that the farmers of the State were losers to a large extent each year through the tendency of the wheat to lodge. He did not therefore say, as the old lady did of the rain that spoiled her "praties": "There's no sinse in it—it's jist the will of God." No, he squared his jaw and polished up the tools in his laboratory.

"Somewhere," he thought, "in the kingdom of Unembodied Ideas is a wheat that will not lodge."

And he did not cease his labors until he had given that idea a body. He developed wheat with so much backbone that it refused to be felled by anything it was likely to meet.

#### AN INCREASED PRODUCT

Again, greater productiveness has been bred into the seeds. The Nebraska Experiment Station, after preaching soil salvation until there no longer was an excuse for the farmer not understanding the necessities of the soil, began to take thought upon other means of service.

"Let's increase the wheat yield," was suggested.

It was a case of first suggestion, then experimentation, next, celebration. By selecting individual heads of the Turkey Red variety of wheat and planting in short rows, the best strains were saved each year for three years. Then these best strains were sown upon field-plats of one-thirtieth of an acre each, and were tested there from three to five years before being distributed among the farmers of the State. What were the results?

They were truly astonishing. From the improved strains an increase of four bushels to the acre was obtained over whatever strain of Turkey Red the farmers of that locality were using. The average yield from eight-acre fields of twenty-one farmers was 21.9 bushels for the local Turkey Red and 25.9 bushels for the improved Turkey Red. There are some 2,000,000 or more acres of wheat lands in the State of Nebraska alone. Just think of how many automobiles could honk over the roads as a result of a four-bushel increase upon those acres!

#### BETTER SEED-SELECTION METHODS

To what does all this point—these facts which prove that the painstaking application of intelligence can actually add to the wheat yield, can eradicate bad habits in the growing wheat, as in growing children; can overcome unfavorable environment? Merely that the scoop-shovel as a method of wheat-seed selection has had its day. Other uses must be found for the scoop-shovel. For a long time





TURKEY RED WHEAT ON ILLINOIS EXPERIMENT FIELD, URBANA

(These shocks represent the yields of wheat in 1912 on one of the breeding plots of the University of Illinois. Two strains which have been multiplied from selected individual plants are shown in comparison with the original variety, Turkey Red. For example, the selected strain on the extreme left produced 25.2 bushels per acre, while the original Turkey Red produced 8.3 bushels only; the second selected strain on the right produced 29.5 bushels. Apparently it pays to select and breed the seed with care.)

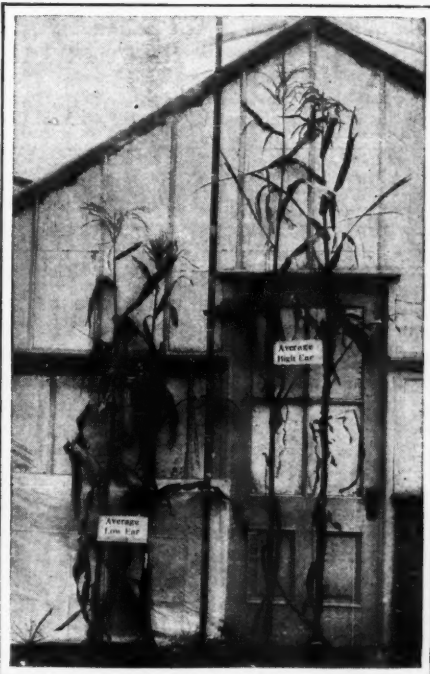
farmers have been buying their seed-corn in the ear, although it would probably startle a community to find one who bought his wheat seed in the head. But the future has that very farmer in its grip, although he may be shaking a rattle right now. The scoop-shovel in the selection of wheat seed must go—behold, it is the cheat of the harvest, the ally of the poorhouse!

Older countries, where density of population has crowded inefficiency hard against the bread-line, have found this out. According to a recent report, Germany has forty-six breeders of rye, eighty-four breeders of wheat, sixty-four breeders of barley, and fifty-three breeders of oats. Now that the price of land in the United States is so high, the farmer must get the most possible from it or conduct a losing business. And it is not enough to reverence the soil by returning the phosphorus, nitrogen, and potassium removed by the crop; nor to add to this an intelligent observation of crop rotation; the seeds, no matter how small, must be selected with painstaking knowledge. And when a notable individual appears in the field, its destination must not be the elevator; it must be destined to become an ancestor.

Nor is it enough to consider the harvest merely. "First the blade, then the leaf, then the full grain in the ear," might be amended to read: "First the blade, then the leaf, then the full grain in the ear, and last the loaf upon the table."

From North Dakota comes a study of the "phosphorus content of bread and of wheat flour; and its relation to the baking qualities

of the flour." It was found that the higher the phosphorus content the larger and finer the loaf. As phosphorus is excellent for the body, let the phosphorus of the loaf be taken into account at seed-time. Similar things have been done in the cornfield.



BREEDING HAS PLACED THE EARS ON THE STALKS TO THE RIGHT TWICE AS HIGH AS THOSE ON THE STALKS TO THE LEFT



#### INCOME-PRODUCERS

(Each cow of this group gave on the average an eight-gallon can of milk per day for a week. This milk was sold at 10 cents a quart, the income from each cow being \$3.20 per day, or \$16 for the five cows. The total receipts from the five cows for a week came to \$112)

## UNCLE SAM'S THREE HERDS OF DAIRY CATTLE

ONE A HERD OF PAUPERS—ANOTHER COMMONPLACE—THE THIRD THE  
STRENGTH OF THE DAIRY INDUSTRY

BY WILBER J. FRASER

(Professor of Dairy Farming, University of Illinois)

**U**NCLE SAM,—that is to say, that part of the American population that farms,—keeps three immense herds of dairy cows; each herd contains seven million head and occupies a farm the size of the State of Illinois! One of these herds lacks \$50,000,000 annually of paying for its keep. Another of equal size makes a moderate profit of \$7.85 per cow, but the third herd of 7,000,000 high producing cows makes the splendid, but not extraordinary, profit of \$26.82 per head, or \$187,000,000 annually.

This is not a mere guess, but is based upon facts secured by the Department of Dairy Husbandry of the University of Illinois from a large and fair comparison of the individual yearly records of over 1000 cows in herds, tested by this department, in the different parts of the State.

Investigations were not made to show that there is a difference in the producing power

of individual dairy cows, as this has been known for a long time, but were made to show how wide and far-reaching this variation is and something of its meaning to the dairy industry of the United States.

The poorest third of these cows produced an average of 3654 pounds of milk and 134 pounds butterfat annually, each cow lacking \$7.25 of paying for her keep. The middle third averaged 5000 pounds of milk and 198 pounds of butterfat annually, returning an average profit of \$7.85; and the best third averaged 6765 pounds of milk and 278 pounds of butterfat, each cow making an annual profit of \$26.82, besides paying market price for all items included in her keep.

As these cows were in commercial dairy herds in four different sections of Illinois, it is justifiable to assume that they are fair representatives of Uncle Sam's cows. According to the last census, the average production of the cows in the United States was

140 pounds butterfat, while the average production of the 1000 cows tested in Illinois was 203 pounds, therefore, the figures here given do not exaggerate the actual conditions and are conservative.

Using the above figures as a basis for Uncle Sam's herds, the following noteworthy facts are brought out:

Since each of the three herds contains over 7,000,000 cows, or more than 230,000 herds of 30 cows each, it will require 230,000 farms containing 160 acres each (a quarter section being required to successfully handle a herd of 30 cows), together with all the buildings, horses, tools, equipment and labor, necessary for one of the three herds. These farms aggregate 36,800,000 acres, or 57,500 square miles, equal to an immense farm the size of the State of Illinois.

#### THE FIRST A POOR FARM HERD SQUANDERING \$50,000,000

Some place in the United States, then, more than the agricultural producing capacity of the whole fertile State of Illinois is being used to support the herd of 7,000,000 poor cows, each one of which is producing only 134 pounds of butterfat per year and lacks \$7.25 of paying for her board and keep, or an aggregate loss of \$50,000,000 each year for the privilege of milking this poor herd.

But the dairymen who read this article will say that this \$50,000,000 cannot be an actual loss. This criticism does not alter the fact that somewhere in the United States, the members of this poor herd actually exist to-day. Because these poor cows are scattered, and some of them are in nearly every herd, where the profit from the good cows covers up the loss on the poor ones, does not lessen the tremendous waste one whit.

#### THE SECOND HERD, THE PAUPERS' SUPPORT

Uncle Sam's second herd of 7,000,000 cows requires exactly the same equipment in every respect as regards land, buildings, labor, etc., the cows producing a yearly average of 5000 pounds of milk, 198 pounds of butterfat, and making an annual profit of \$7.85 each. This herd is a most decided improvement on the first, as the cows in it earn



A BREAD-WINNER AND A MORTGAGE-LIFTER

annually an average of \$15.10 more than those in the first herd. Even in this better herd a man must milk a cow eighty-two times, or more than a month, to make a profit of one dollar.

Since all but 60 cents of the gain on each cow in the second herd is taken to make up the loss on each cow in the first, the combined efforts of two cows, one from each of these herds, would earn 60 cents, or 30 cents each annually. In other words, dairymen are housing, caring for, and milking the lower two-thirds of the cows in the United States to make an average profit of only 1/10 of a cent per day on each cow. Each of the 14,000,000 cows in these two herds has to be kept ten days to make one cent profit, or fifty days (nearly two months) and milked one hundred times before the net profit will be great enough to buy a nickel cigar or pay a five-cent street-car fare. A man milking a herd of 50 cows like the lower two-thirds of all the cows would make a profit of five cents every day he had the courage to hang to this business.

Think of the 14,000,000 cows being milked each day in the United States that never did anything to help advance the farm, and never can or will. They are eating up the produce of an area of land equal in producing capacity to twice that of the fertile State of Illinois, and using up all the mental and physical labor of 1,400,000 men devoting their energy to farming this land and milking these 14,000,000 cows simply to pay interest on the investment and ordinary laborer's wages, with nothing left for profit. If a man houses, cares for, milks and raises the crops to feed a cow a year for 30 cents profit, he is surely in small business. He could not be called a Napoleon of finance,

nor a captain of industry, according to the common usage of these terms.

#### THE THIRD HERD, THE STRENGTH OF THE DAIRY INDUSTRY

Uncle Sam's third herd is composed of 7,000,000 cows, requiring only the same amount of land, buildings, equipment, and labor, but producing on the average 6765 pounds of milk and 278 pounds of butterfat annually, paying for housing, ordinary laborer's wages for all work put upon them, market price for all feed consumed, and leaving a clear profit of \$26.82 each as remuneration for the intelligence put into the business of producing and caring for such cows.

It is this herd that is the life of the dairy industry. If it were not for these profit-making cows, dairy products would be far higher in price or dairymen would have become discouraged and quit milking cows long ago, which would have cut off the milk supply from mankind. This herd, instead of losing \$50,000,000 annually as the poor herd does, makes an actual profit of \$187,000,000.

A dairyman keeping thirty cows that are but the equal of these will receive interest on his investment in land and farm equipment, pay for all labor put upon the farm and herd, and, in addition, receive the neat little sum of \$805 as clear profit for the brain work put into the business. In other words, he will receive one and one-half times as much actual cash for his brain work as for his manual labor at farm laborers' wages, and this is not by any means the maximum of what dairymen have actually accomplished. Thus, were reasonably good methods employed on the dairy farms, Uncle Sam might be making one and a half million dollars profit daily from his dairy business instead of one-half a million, or a difference of a million dollars a day.

It has been said that the lack of correct agricultural methods is one of the reasons for the high cost of living. If this be true, then dairying, being one phase of agriculture, comes in for its share of responsibility in the matter. One is asked, "Is there any help for this tremendous loss?" and that this can be answered in the affirmative is one of the encouraging features. The remedy is not difficult or complicated. It consists principally of the following: getting rid of the poor cows, filling their places with heifers from the best cows and good, pure-bred sires, and, last but not least, good crops, feed and care.

#### REMEDY NO. 1

The first step necessary then to make a dairy herd more profitable is to rid it of the lowest producing cows. No matter whether we believe it or not, the vital question of good and poor cows is a living issue confronting every dairyman all the time, and he cannot get away from it.

There is not a single county, nor even a township, in any State which has yet come anywhere near reaching the maximum possibilities of milk production. The pity of it is that the dairymen and their families caring for these worthless cows are kept so busy with the drudgery of preparing the soil; planting, cultivating and harvesting the crops; housing, feeding, caring for and milking the cows, that they do not have time to pause and consider where this drudgery is leading them. They are struggling with a losing game and after all this hard work is done, the path they are traveling can only lead to financial ruin. This has been the actual experience of many men keeping poor cows. Such a waste of energy is appalling.

If a dairy cow, kept under average farm conditions, does not produce 4000 pounds of milk and 160 pounds of butterfat each year, the dairyman caring for her is losing money every year she is kept, and yet cows producing this amount of milk or less are bred on from generation to generation. When we consider how easy it is to apply the dairyman's yardstick, the scales and Babcock test, to every dairy herd and then realize that less than one per cent. of the two million dairymen in the United States are using this yardstick to-day, it is not to be wondered at that such conditions as those mentioned above continue to exist.

Every dairyman should keep a record of the production of each individual cow and those producing less than the above mentioned amounts of milk and fat should be sold at once. Each dairyman should set a minimum standard of production, which should be raised from year to year, and should replace all cows not coming up to this with better producers. Better cows would increase the amount, and reduce the cost of production so that by receiving even the same price for the product, the dairymen would soon be on the road to prosperity. The value of such tests is shown by the following:

One herd of dairy cows tested produced an average of 5800 pounds of milk and 224



pounds of butterfat the first year. This herd was making an average profit of \$16.60 before they were tested. After four years of testing and weeding out of the poor cows, the average production was 8628 pounds of milk and 324 pounds of butterfat, making an increase of 2828 pounds of milk and 100 pounds of butterfat, the average profit being \$40.52, or an increased profit of \$23.42 per cow.

#### REMEDY NO. 2

Raising the heifer calves from the best cows is essential to good dairying, but if the dairyman wishes to be most successful in building up his future herd, this cannot be accomplished unless a good, pure-bred sire is used. An inspection of dairy herds will show that many times comparatively little attention is paid to the quality of the bull. Like produces like with dairy cattle the same as in all other animals.

If a man has a herd of star-boarder cows and continues to use a scrub sire, as many still persist in doing, he cannot hope to improve the herd or succeed financially.

The initial cost of a pure-bred sire may seem great, but it must be remembered that he represents one-half of all the qualities, characteristics, capacity for milk production, and everything transmitted to the calves which are to constitute the succeeding herd.

The pure-bred sire is certain to transmit more of his characteristics to the offspring than will grade cows, and no more economical investment can be made by a dairyman than to spend time and money in obtaining the best one possible. Frequently the penny is held so close to the eye that it is impossible to see the dollar a little farther off, and this is just what a man is doing who has a dairy herd and thinks he is economizing by buying a poor or even ordinary sire. One may have reason to say that he cannot afford to pay a big price for a fine cow, but the same argument does not apply to the purchase of an improved bull, because the sire's influence spreads farther and faster than the cow's.

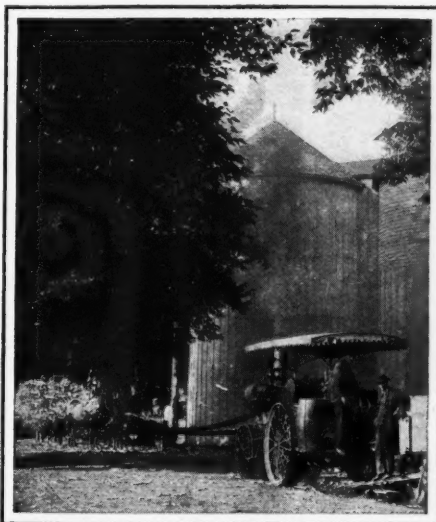
From generation to generation the succession of well-selected sires goes on increasing and intensifying the improvement in the offspring of common cows until within a few years they have practically transformed the whole herd at slight expense and more than doubled its profit.

Every man who has had any experience in the use of a good, pure-bred sire from high-producing dams will agree that he was of peculiar value and great economy in building up the dairy herd and that the investment paid, and that most liberally. The evidence is seen in contrasting heifers from good, pure-bred sires with heifers lacking such percentage, and in the increase of the milk production.

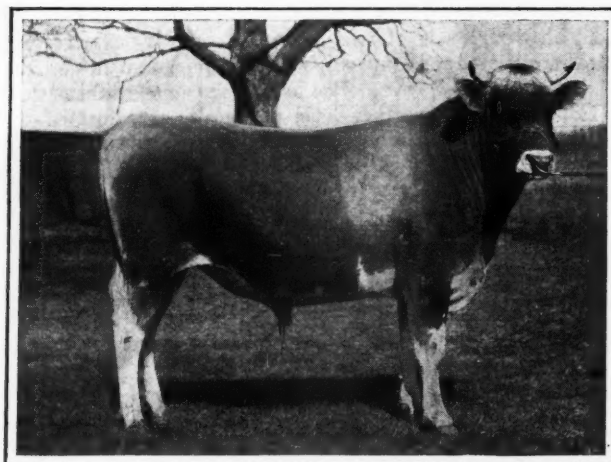
The average production in six dairy herds that have been tested was 175 pounds of butterfat each year where no attention had been paid to grading up the herds by the use of pure-bred sires, while, in the same locality, six other herds, in which pure-bred sires had been used, averaged 265 pounds of butterfat per year. The cows in the ungraded herds averaged \$3.40 profit per year, while the cows in the graded herds averaged \$24.80 profit. Such a difference in profit is sufficient evidence of the value of a good, pure-bred sire. On this basis a herd of forty cows from good sires will return an actual profit every year of \$856 more than a herd with which scrub sires have been used.

Ridding the herds of the poor cows, and using a pure-bred sire, presupposes raising heifer calves from the best cows. But many dairymen say, "This is too expensive." The writer has proved by actual feeding trials that \$3.50 worth of whole and skim milk will successfully feed a dairy calf until it is able to digest a grain ration and thrive without milk. In the face of such a fact, no right-minded dairyman can say that the cost of the milk required to raise a good heifer is too great.

There are four reasons why the dairyman



PUTTING CORN INTO THE SILO TO FURNISH A PALATABLE AND SUCCULENT RATION FOR WINTER



A GOOD SIRE—THE BEST INVESTMENT THE DAIRYMAN CAN MAKE

should raise the heifer calves from the best cows:

First, from the dairy cow as from no other animal, an absolute and complete record of performance can be secured upon which to base the selection.

Second, the dairyman knows the percentage.

Third, the dairy cow is largely made or unmade the first year of her life, and by feeding the calves properly the dairyman is able to develop them to their greatest capacity and secure cows of more efficiency.

Fourth, by replenishing the herd with home-grown heifers, the dreaded diseases, contagious abortion and tuberculosis, may be largely eliminated.

#### REMEDY NO. 3

After dairymen have rid their herds of the poor cows, purchased good, pure-bred sires, and started raising the heifer calves from the best individuals, there is still another essential,—feed,—to be considered if the greatest profit is to be obtained. If a large portion of it is purchased as has frequently been the custom in the past, the profits will be greatly reduced and in many cases entirely eaten up, and thus the time spent in breeding up the herds will be practically lost. Crops must be grown, the combination of which not only increases the milk production, when fed to dairy cows in proper proportions, but soil values as well.

There is as great a difference in the amounts of food value per acre produced by different crops as there is in the milk-producing capacity of different cows. An ordi-

narily good crop of corn put into the silo or a good crop of alfalfa hay will furnish more than three times as much food value to the acre as will a crop of oats or timothy hay, and nearly five times as much as blue grass pasture. This means, then, that if a man wants to practise intensive dairy farming, he must reduce the areas of the crops producing a low amount of food value per acre and grow as much corn and alfalfa as is practicable. Where alfalfa cannot be successfully grown, cow peas and soja beans may take the place of it, as they contain nearly as much

protein. By using corn, corn silage, and alfalfa hay, the cows are not only furnished an economical, but a palatable, ration and with these two crops no concentrates need be purchased excepting for cows giving large yields of milk.

At the end of a few years the dairymen conducting their business on this basis will find the profits derived therefrom are handsome returns for all investment.

#### THE POSSIBILITIES

Where the foregoing remedies have been applied, dairymen have shown the possibilities of rightly conducted dairying by more than doubling the production of their herds and increasing the profit many fold. Some herds tested have been graded up to average over 9000 pounds of milk and 324 pounds of butterfat, making a profit of \$42.00 per cow, which is to say, that with a herd of fifty cows, besides paying for all labor and operating expenses of the farm, and the profit on the crops which he would have received had he been a grain farmer, the dairyman would have made an additional \$2100 as net profit from his dairy herd.

One herd tested produced an average of 397 pounds of butterfat per cow a year, each earning \$56 above the cost of keep. The entire herd of fifty-seven cows made the profit of \$3200 for the year.

Each of the five cows pictured at the head of this article produced an eight-gallon can of milk per day for a week. The milk from these cows would have brought, at that time, on the wholesale market, \$2 per hundred pounds, or \$1.37 for each cow per day.

For the five cows the returns would have been \$6.85 per day, or an income of \$47.95 for the week. Sold as it was at 10 cents per quart, the receipts from each cow were \$3.20 per day or \$16 for the five cows, the extraordinary income of \$112 for the week. In some poor herds, the daily production of ten cows is not sufficient to fill a milk can of this size.

In order that the possibilities in economic milk production might be made more evident, the Department of Dairy Husbandry started a twenty-acre dairy demonstration, and produced during the past six years an average of 3979 pounds of milk per acre. This is practically twice what the best dairymen, raising all of the feed upon the land, have been able to produce, and was made possible by raising practically nothing but corn and alfalfa, and feeding them to efficient dairy cows, well-housed and cared for.

#### RESULTS OF GOOD AND POOR DAIRYING

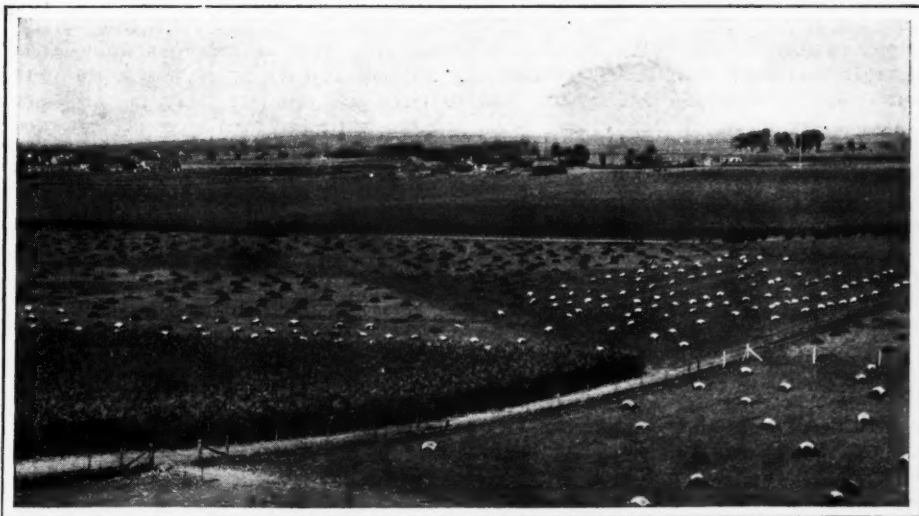
The actual difference in the ability of dairymen to make money in dairy farming is shown by the following data taken from a dairy survey conducted by this department on 317 dairy farms which were operated by their owners. After all expenses of operating the farm, including labor, repairs, and interest on the investment, were paid, the amount left for the owner's personal efforts or each man's labor income was as follows:

The labor income of one dairyman was....	\$ 5602
The labor income of each of three dairymen was over.....	5000
The labor income of each of four dairymen was over.....	4000

The labor income of each of eight dairymen was over .....	\$3000
The labor income of each of twenty dairymen was over.....	2000
The labor income of each of eighty dairymen was over.....	1000
The loss of each of twenty dairymen was over .....	500
The loss of each of ten dairymen was over.....	1000
The loss of each of two dairymen was over.....	1500
The loss of one dairyman was.....	1716

As twenty men lost over \$500 each, ten men lost over \$1000 each, and one man lost \$1716, the possibility of losing money in dairy farming, when not properly managed, is clearly shown, and these losses mean that these men not only worked for nothing and boarded themselves, but actually paid for the privilege. However, it is encouraging to know that the labor involved in making the profit of \$5000 per year in dairying is practically no greater than that expended when \$1500 is lost, and as each of the best eighty made over \$1000 profit per year, each of the best four made over \$4000, and each of the best three made over \$5000, there is no question as to the possibility of making money by dairy farming. The satisfaction to be derived from these gains is great, and the encouragement received pays liberally for the energy expended.

Any man who speaks lightly of the great difference in the final results of keeping good and poor cows, and raising good and poor crops, shows only his ignorance of the height or depth to which these factors can take a dairyman and his family.



CORN AND ALFALFA—THE MILK-PRODUCING CROPS

# MILLIONS FOR FARM ANIMALS' HEALTH

BY CHARLES FREDERICK CARTER

**C**ONSUMERS of meat and dairy products should take comfort from the remarkable extent and efficiency of the facilities for safeguarding the health of domestic animals displayed in dealing with the outbreak of foot-and-mouth disease last fall. For, so long as a standing army of scientific specialists is maintained on a perpetual war footing, with all the millions in money at its command that may be needed to protect the food supply, the public health may be considered safe.

## THE DEADLY FOOT-AND-MOUTH DISEASE

While the epidemic is no longer widespread, it would be rash to say that it has been entirely stamped out; for, besides being the most contagious and destructive of all diseases that afflict cattle, hogs, and sheep, it is also the most persistent. Although it has ravaged herds and flocks for 2000 years, neither cure nor preventive is known; and the disease almost defies control. It cost France \$7,000,000 in 1871 and Great Britain \$5,000,000 in 1883. Notwithstanding Germany's exceptionally good veterinary sanitary system, the foot-and-mouth disease broke out in that country in 1887 and raged uninterruptedly for ten years, affecting an aggregate of more than 3,000,000 cattle, nearly 4,000,000 sheep and goats, and 1,200,000 hogs. In the single year 1892, when the epidemic reached its height, the loss amounted to \$25,000,000.

## THE OUTBREAK OF 1914

Thanks to good management or good luck, or, perhaps, to both, the scourge has never become as thoroughly established in America as it has in European countries, although it has appeared here six times, each recurring attack being more serious than the last. The fifth outbreak, which was in 1908, originated in Michigan from infected vaccine virus imported from Japan. The disease spread to New York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland before the Government got the upper hand.

The recent outbreak also appeared first

in southern Michigan, though how it was introduced there is not known. Shipments of diseased hogs from this region which passed through Chicago are believed to be responsible for the infection of pens in the Union Stock-yards. Once the yards became infected there was danger that every shipment of live stock through Chicago might pick up and spread the contagion. As a matter of fact, the epidemic did spread in an incredibly short time to sixteen States, reaching from Massachusetts to Washington and from Wisconsin to Kentucky. There seems to have been a little delay in diagnosing the first cases, which may be understood when it is known that even official inspectors have been unable to distinguish between foot-and-mouth disease and less dangerous maladies.

## PROMPT ENFORCEMENT OF QUARANTINE

Not until specimens sent from Michigan to the Bureau of Animal Industry at Washington had been examined about mid-October was the disease recognized and the peril realized. Simultaneously infected cattle were received at the Chicago stock-yards. By order of the Bureau of Animal Industry the stock-yards were at once quarantined and a corps of 150 inspectors was set to work to trace and disinfect every car in which infected cattle had been received. Diseased animals were killed and buried in quicklime, others were isolated till they could be given a clean bill of health, then slaughtered. When the yards were empty a thousand men set to work to disinfect every square inch of the thirteen thousand pens and the twenty-five miles of troughs with a 5-per-cent. solution of carbolic acid. Rats and pigeons were exterminated, for they carry the disease. Similar action was taken at Kansas City, Buffalo, and other markets where the disease appeared, and every locality in which it broke out was rigidly quarantined.

Cats, dogs, and poultry are condemned to death as disease-carriers on all infected



premises. Milk may convey the disease to calves and pigs; litter from infected barnyards may start an outbreak miles away. The contagion may also be carried in the clothing of persons coming in contact with the disease. Quarantine regulations, therefore, include all persons on infected farms. Even schools may be closed to check the spread of the contagion. Veterinarians and others whose duties require them to visit affected herds wear rubber coats, boots, hats, and gloves, which, upon leaving, are disinfected.

#### INDICATIONS

Foot-and-mouth disease, epizootic apthæ, aphthous fever, infectious apthæ or eczema epizootica, as it is variously called, usually attacks from one-fourth to one-half the herds in districts it invades, in spite of local quarantine. If a stable is infected no animal in it escapes. From three to six days after exposure to infection the animal has a chill, followed by fever, the temperature sometimes reaching 106 degrees. In a day or so vesicles from the size of a hemp seed to a silver dollar appear in the mouth, around the coronets of the feet, and between the toes. There is an excessive flow of saliva and the animal goes lame. Ordinarily the mortality is from 1 to 5 per cent., though from 60 to 80 per cent. of calves fed on infected milk die. In Russia, where conditions are similar to those in Western grazing regions, the mortality has been as high as 70 per cent. The effects of the disease on animals that recover are such as to make them practically useless. An attack does not confer immunity; on the contrary, an animal may have several attacks within a few months. In any case, it is a source of infection for months after apparent recovery.

#### INFECTED ANIMALS MUST BE KILLED

Foot-and-mouth disease is propagated by a specific virus, though its germ has never been isolated. It is so small that it will pass through a standard germ-proof filter. The most powerful microscope will not detect it. Inoculation, so successful in combating other diseases, merely spreads the infection. It is possible to cure the external symptoms, but during the process of trying to cure one sick animal the chances are that hundreds of others may be affected. Veterinary authorities of Europe and America are agreed that the only way to cope with the disease is to stop all movements of stock, hay, and other material that may possibly

have been subjected to infection, and to kill as quickly as possible all herds in which the disease has gained any foothold and bury the carcasses in quick-lime under at least five feet of earth. Owners are reimbursed at values set by State appraisers, the expense of condemnation, quarantine, and disinfection being divided equally between federal and State governments.

#### RESEARCHES OF THE ROCKEFELLER INSTITUTE

One hopeful result of the recent outbreak was that the Rockefeller Institute of Medical Research, which was given a special endowment of a million dollars last May for the study of animal diseases, was granted permission by the Government to make laboratory studies of the virus for the purpose of isolating and identifying, if possible, the organism causing the disease. No announcement of the plans of the Institute will be made, however, until the director, Dr. Theobald Smith, who, while connected with the Bureau of Animal Industry, established the fact that a certain species of tick communicates Texas fever to cattle, the first demonstration of the theory that insects spread diseases, assumes his new duties on July 1.

#### CONVEYANCE TO HUMAN BEINGS

Besides working havoc with the food supply, foot-and-mouth disease may be conveyed to human beings by infected milk or by the virus coming in contact with open wounds. Less than forty-eight hours after infection fever sets in, accompanied by twitching of the limbs, headache, dryness and heat in the mouth and itching of the hands. After five days the tongue and mucous membrane of the mouth swell, sometimes enormously. Yellowish-white vesicles appear in the mouth, bursting in about twenty-four hours. There is intense thirst, and smarting pain follows any attempt to eat, speak or swallow. In short, the malady is distressing and repulsive and, notwithstanding reassuring official proclamations, consequences may be serious. In Dover, England, foot-and-mouth disease assumed the proportions of an epidemic among human beings in 1884, some cases resulting in death.

#### WHAT IS DONE BY THE BUREAU OF ANIMAL INDUSTRY

America's comparative immunity from the scourge has been chiefly due to the liberality of the Government in spending money to protect the health of live stock, which kills

two birds with one stone; for in safeguarding animals the Government protects both the health and the pocketbook of the public. This function is entrusted to the Bureau of Animal Industry, one of the many useful branches of the Department of Agriculture. Under ordinary circumstances the average man hears little and cares less about the Bureau of Animal Industry; yet this modest agency plays a part in the national economy, the importance of which can hardly be overestimated, and which certainly is not generally appreciated.

To quote Dr. A. D. Melvin, Chief of the Bureau of Animal Industry, "while fostering and promoting the live-stock industry in its various aspects, the highest mission of the bureau is to aid the people of the country in obtaining a plentiful and wholesome supply of food of animal origin, such as meat, dairy products, and eggs." To accomplish this mission the bureau employs about 3500 persons and spends more than \$3,000,000 annually.

#### INSPECTION AND CARE OF MEATS

Through its meat-inspection division the bureau comes into intimate daily touch with the public. Sixty per cent. of all meat and meat products is produced under the watchful eyes of inspectors of the bureau. Under the law only animals slaughtered on farms or by local butchers for their own trade escape inspection. Government supervision is something more than a formality. The bureau's watchfulness begins with the Field Inspection Division, which inspects live stock at points of origin, in transit and at market centers, sees that cars are disinfected according to law and supervises the enforcement of other measures to prevent the spread of contagious diseases.

At the packing-house the Meat Inspection Division takes up the vigil. Animals about the health of which any doubts exist are slaughtered under special supervision. Then, if indications of disease are found, the entire carcass is tanked. All meat undergoes inspection after slaughter and not a piece can be shipped until it has received an inspector's mark of approval. As indicating the thoroughness of this post-mortem inspection it may be said that in 1911 18,851,930 pounds of meat was condemned. All meat products are prepared under supervision of the bureau. As the result of more than twenty-seven thousand laboratory examinations in 1913 it can be said that no illegal preservatives or coloring matter are used in these products.

#### LIVE-STOCK LOSSES FROM DISEASE

But for the successful activity of the Bureau of Animal Industry in combating diseases of animals steaks and chops would be so scarce that only millionaires could afford them. In the aggregate the annual losses due to diseases of live stock in the United States are appalling. As estimated by the Bureau of Animal Industry these losses are as follows:

Hog cholera.....	\$75,000,000
Texas fever and cattle ticks.....	40,000,000
Tuberculosis .....	25,000,000
Contagious abortion.....	20,000,000
Blackleg .....	6,000,000
Anthrax .....	1,500,000
Scabies of sheep and cattle.....	4,600,000
Glanders .....	5,000,000
Other diseases.....	22,000,000
Parasites .....	5,000,000
Poultry diseases.....	8,750,000
	<hr/> \$212,850,000

It is estimated that the meat animals lost annually by disease and exposure, if they could be saved, would be sufficient to furnish a normal year's meat supply for the entire population of the New England States.

#### FIGHTING TEXAS FEVER

To reduce this enormous loss is the chief end for which the Bureau of Animal Industry exists. It has many notable successes to its credit. The greatest achievement of the bureau was to discover that ticks caused Texas fever and then to find a practicable method of getting rid of the ticks. After eight years of effort the bureau was able to report in 1914 that 30 per cent. of the territory originally infested by these ticks had been cleared of them so that it was safe to release from quarantine some 200,000 square miles of territory, which is more than equal to the combined areas of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi. This means that a vast area where once but little beef was raised is now available for that purpose. Cattle-raising offers an added source of revenue for the Southern farmer and an extra source of meat supply for a market that needs it. The total extinction of the tick is now only a question of time and money.

#### INOCULATING AGAINST HOG CHOLERA

Another notable achievement of the bureau resulted from studies of hog cholera, pursued for a number of years. The investigation proved that the disease was caused by a micro-organism so minute that its form or

structure cannot be determined by the microscope. The next step was the production of a serum which prevents the disease. This serum has been patented and assigned to the free use of the people of the United States. Every State has been notified of the discovery and urged to undertake the manufacture of the serum for the benefit of the farmers. A majority have acted on this suggestion and considerably more than a million hogs have been given the protective inoculation with satisfactory results. This is only a beginning, to be sure, but results obtained promise much for the future.

#### OTHER ACTIVITIES OF THE BUREAU

Blackleg in former years caused a loss of 10 per cent. of calves in certain regions. The bureau perfected a protective vaccine, of which more than 17,000,000 doses have been distributed in the last fifteen years, reducing the loss to less than  $\frac{1}{2}$  of 1 per cent.

Bureau investigations show that 5 per cent. of dairy herds are tuberculous. This discovery has resulted in the removal of more than a hundred thousand infected animals, an achievement of the utmost importance to public health and of no less economic importance on account of the menace to the health of other animals.

Another recent achievement is the development of a greatly improved test for glanders, making it possible to diagnose that dangerous disease promptly and accurately. Many thousands of doses of mallein are furnished annually for testing mules and horses for glanders.

A large proportion of the 200 species of insects that commonly attack domestic animals have been made the subject of study by the bureau. Sheep scab and cattle mange have been eliminated in more than 135,000 square miles of territory formerly quarantined on account of these pests. The heel fly, which transmits blood diseases, including the deadly anthrax, and stable flies, which were so bad in 1912 in a part of the Southwest

that they killed 300 cattle, mules, and horses outright, largely prevented field work, caused many runaways, and reduced milk production more than half, have been studied with a view to their extermination.

The bureau has worked out the life history of the stomach worm of the sheep, a parasite that causes a loss of millions of dollars. This information is the necessary foundation on which preventive and remedial measures must be based. Similarly, the discovery of the gid parasite in sheep is expected to lead to a remedy. The fact that tapeworm cysts are common in the muscles of the sheep has also been established. These cysts render the mutton undesirable as food, and mean a heavy loss to the sheep growers, but it is a great comfort to consumers of mutton to know that meat inspectors will now be on the alert to guard them from this peril.

The discovery of the hookworm and its extensive distribution in the United States was made by a scientist in the employ of the Bureau of Animal Industry, who has now gone to another branch of the public service.

The bureau is also conducting a study of rabies. The prevalence of this malady, eliminated in England and Argentina by banishing most of the dogs and by the relentless enforcement of laws for the control of the remainder, may be surmised from the fact that the various Pasteur Institutes in America treat upward of 1500 cases a year, while deaths from hydrophobia amount to more than 160 a year. Unless the Pasteur treatment is used in time one person out of five bitten by mad dogs develops hydrophobia, which invariably terminates in a horrible death. Furthermore, meat and milk from animals afflicted with rabies is dangerous.

These are but a representative few of the activities of the Bureau of Animal Industry which in the aggregate result in the saving of scores of millions of dollars' worth of property and hundreds of human lives every year.



# THE CORONER: A STORY OF POLITICAL DEGENERACY

BY H. S. GILBERTSON

[This article discusses a question of great interest in many States,—Why is the Coroner? The New York Constitutional Convention may attempt a solution of the problem.—THE EDITOR.]

IN politics, as in biology, there is a dis-integrating process so constant as to merit the name of law. Public institutions, failing to keep pace with their environment, or deprived of the purifying sunlight of public opinion and public interest, droop, wither, and mortify and become a menace to society and public health. In the world of local politics the star degenerate is the office of coroner. Decay has been consuming the institution through a score of generations, till it has become an all but useless public charge. The truth of this general statement has never been so strikingly illustrated as in the investigation of the coroner system in New York City recently made by the Commissioner of Accounts at the direction of Mayor Mitchel. After examining under oath 390 witnesses the Commissioner reported in terms of unqualified condemnation the elective system which entrusted the important function of medico-legal inquiry to plumbers, marble-cutters, undertakers, paint-dealers, saloon-keepers, and mediocre physicians, several of whom testified, with a straight face, to the sufficiency of "horse-sense" as a qualification for fixing the responsibility for a violent or suspicious death.

The constitutions in most States have vested the coroner with a mysterious importance, which the public fails to comprehend, but takes in such good faith that it not only permits the continuance of the office but keeps its elective character inbedded in the fundamental law as an inalienable popular "right."

The great anomaly about the office is its weird combination of functions, harking back to simple Saxon days when there was no science of medicine and only the germ of the common law, and the "Crownner" was the general handy man of the King. Imported into America by the English colonists, the officer has been a catch-all for unclassified duties, as, for instance, in Ohio, where we find him obliged to arrest persons

who have been attempting to sell liquor within two miles of an agricultural fair and to assist in the arrest of criminals attempting to escape from the penitentiary. In most States, too, he is the understudy of the sheriff and may act in his stead in certain cases. But his chief function is to act as the original inquisitor into the causes of death by violence, or under suspicious circumstances.

## *Knows Little Medicine and Less Law*

For the latter and extremely important duty the majority of coroners have not the slightest qualifications. Every lawyer knows what shrewd and skilled investigation is needed, beginning immediately after the commission of a crime, to secure a complete chain of evidence against the guilty party. But the coroner is rarely, if ever, a lawyer. In a large proportion of cases the causes of death are not apparent either from a superficial examination of the body or from the questioning of witnesses. So that it then becomes necessary to resort to autopsy, and frequently to microscopical, bacteriological or chemical examination of the organs. This requires the services of a highly skilled pathologist. But a coroner is almost never that. And since it is virtually impossible to find the needed medical and legal skill in a single human being, it is customary to split the difference and give the job to a layman!

In some States, to be sure, the coroner must be a medical man, but too often his certificate works to conceal his actual incapacity. Even the special provision in some jurisdictions, for the appointment of a coroner's physician is apparently no guarantee of proficiency, since the coroner, if a layman, or even an inferior physician, has no appreciation of the highly specialized skill required in his subordinate. And so it happened that the coroner's physician in a large Western city confessed, with perfect good grace, that he had never looked into a microscope; and



a certain coroner's physician in New York City, entering the morgue for the first time, remarked that, in his case, "Tammany Hall had mistaken an orator for a pathologist."

All this implies no mere piece of expensive inefficiency. The coroner's blunders carry with them a terrible seriousness which none but the part of the public that is directly involved, has come to appreciate.

#### *The Coroner's Negligence Helps Criminals to Escape Justice*

In the large centers of population the coroner's office is an important factor in the administration of criminal justice. Mr. Burns has made the public familiar with the responsibilities of apparent trifles in determining the authorship of crime, of the "track" that every criminal leaves; and if the chief training of the coroner has not been in the detective business, but in the plumbing trade, or in mixing drinks at a saloon bar, or even in the more dignified practise of medicine, it will readily be seen how natural it is for him to move a piece of furniture from its original position, thus possibly obscuring the direction of a bullet, or to obliterate some other equally vital bits of physical evidence.

In the handling of the inquest the untrained coroner is so likely to introduce testimony which will give the defense a chance to manufacture perjured evidence, that it is customary, at least in New York City, to have a representative of the district attorney on hand at every inquisition to prevent such accidents. For, as an assistant district attorney recently said, "the coroner does nothing which must not be done over again, for he cannot be trusted to do anything right." When it happens that a close co-operation exists between the two offices, the cause of justice runs smoothly, but when opposite political parties are in control, the danger that a criminal will escape through the fingers of Justice is serious indeed.

The inefficiency of the office is most markedly shown in the investigations of poisonings. This is natural, since poisons are more difficult to detect than any other agency of violence. Some of them leave almost no trace at all and nearly all of them reveal their presence in the body only after a chemical test. And yet, in spite of these known facts, there are coroners and coroner's physicians who deem their duty well done when they have questioned a few interested witnesses and searched the surroundings for

empty bottles. In New York alone, out of the hundreds of homicides that are committed annually not more than one or two a year are laid to drugs. It is so easy for an ignorant or lazy coroner to stop short of a complete investigation and "fake" the death certificate, or to lay the victim's death to "some natural cause, the nature of which is unknown to the jury!"

But does it seem likely that the clever denizens of the underworld are unaware of this negligence? And is it at all improbable that the administration of the coroner's office, by negligence at least, is a promoter of murders? A leading pathologist testified in the New York investigation that, so far as the work of most of the coroners and coroners' physicians was concerned, the crime of infanticide might be practised in that city with impunity!

#### *Making Insurance Frauds Easy*

The growing popularity of life and accident insurance within recent years has greatly increased the need of exactly determining the cause of death, for the border line of symptoms as between natural causes and violence, so far as external evidences are concerned, is often extremely indistinct. A fatal illness may be directly traceable to a fall which took place months previous, or to a variety of other conditions and circumstances. It is not enough to say, "the man is dead; that is all we need to know," for the whole structure of the accident and casualty, and to a somewhat less extent, of life, insurance business depends upon administrative methods which are exact. Unless this is the case, and if the companies are always in imminent danger of being called upon to pay large fraudulent claims or to enter upon prolonged and expensive litigation, the cost of insurance is increased to neutralize the effects of the fraud or carelessness. In the long run the public foots the bill.

What, for instance, happened in the following case?

A merchant of about forty years of age is found dead in a bathtub with the water turned on. The coroner is secretly notified and he appears on the scene in person (which is unusual), with the coroner's physician. Together they proceed to the investigation, asking questions of everybody, examining the surroundings and the body of the dead man. To make sure that there has been no poisoning, they smell the man's mouth for prussic acid. And they write out this enlightening statement of the cause of death: "Asphyxia;

found in a bathtub filled with water. Inquest pending."

Previous to that time the man has never been ill and has proven so good a risk that the life-insurance companies a few weeks before have issued him policies aggregating over \$300,000; and yet his family physician claims to have been treating him for hardening of the arteries! An examination of his affairs shows him to have been heavily involved. Large issues hang upon the determination of the exact cause of death. Did he die from natural causes? If so, his heirs are entitled to collect upon the policies, but "he has committed suicide the insurance companies, under the terms of the policy, are not liable. One would suppose that under these conditions the coroner would not rest until he had discovered the cause of death beyond any possibility of contradiction. But in fact he did nothing of the kind. Not one item of competent medical evidence was submitted at the inquest. A thorough autopsy, which the law allows and expects, would have cleared up the mystery, but this for some reason was omitted.

#### *How a Good Coroner Might Promote the Administration of Justice*

Contrariwise, the innocent reap the benefit of good administration, as in this instance: A little girl was found strangled to death in a crowded foreign district. There were marks upon her throat, as from violence. The only other person in the vicinity was her father. Superficially, the case was clearly one of murder. A crowd of excited persons attacked the man and were about to lynch him when the police came upon the scene and arrested him. To all appearances he was headed straight for the electric chair. Then Providence intervened. The coroner's physician in this case was not content with external evidences and so decided upon an autopsy. He opened the little girl's larynx and found a wad of chewing gum! The usual slipshod administration of the coroner's office would have sent the father to his doom.

The good work done by the coroner's physician in this case gives but a mild hint of the enormous possibilities to humanity of proper administration of what are now the coroner's functions. Those familiar with the legal departments of the life and accident-insurance companies testify that if the possibilities of fraud in the cases which are now the subject of public investigation could be eliminated, the premiums could be greatly

reduced. From the insurance case cited above in which the fixing of liability for payment depended upon the skill and integrity of a single public official, one can form some vague notion of the magnitude of the public interest in exact vital statistics. The insurance companies, however, have not been aggressive in changing the system, but have been inclined to shift the burden upon the ultimate consumers, who hold their policies.

Good administration, too, would be of incalculable value to medical science. At the present time the statistics of the coroner's office throughout the country are regarded by trained investigators as practically worthless. On the other hand, the general run of cases of death by natural causes are not subject to compulsory autopsy and only in rare instances is a post-mortem examination made. And so, the data which comes within the purview of the public investigator could be made to yield a rich mass of scientific material upon which to base conclusions as to the cause and symptoms of disease.

#### *The Massachusetts System,—Medical Inspectors Appointed by the Governor*

A few States have recognized their opportunities. Massachusetts is the most conspicuous of these. Forty years ago that State suffered acutely from the coroners. In Boston alone there were forty of them separately elected, every one an incompetent politician, or worse. In every way the situation became intolerable and the demand for better things got recognition. The whole elective system was wiped out. The State was divided up into districts, regardless of the existing local units, and for each district there was appointed by the Governor a medical examiner and an associate who, in the language of the law, must each be an "able and discreet person learned in the science of medicine." These medical men were expected to perform only the work for which they had been trained and the judicial functions were turned over to magistrates of the local courts. So successful has been the operation of this plan in the Suffolk district (Boston) that the findings of the medical examiners there have never been successfully combated in a legal action.

From time to time the Massachusetts system has been adopted in the other New England States, with slight modifications, except in Connecticut. New Jersey also has a good system in its larger counties. Because of constitutional restrictions it has been impossible in that State to abandon the coroners

entirely, but they have been so largely stripped of their powers that their existence is more of a nuisance than a menace. The real power of investigation has been conferred upon the county physician, who not only looks into the causes of violent and suspicious deaths but serves as a medical adviser or expert in the criminal courts. His testimony is taken as the last word on the technical matter at hand, and the lay jury must accept it as such, just as it might take the rulings of the judge on technical legal matters. Both in Massachusetts and in the larger counties of New Jersey, the tendency has been to retain these medical men for long periods of time. Every year they become more and more valuable to your communities by reason of their accumulated mass of experience, for which no amount of formal training could properly be substituted.

#### *What Shall Be Substituted for the Coroner's Office?*

The question naturally arises as to whether the Massachusetts system could be extended to other States to advantage. Undoubtedly it could, but it is capable of improvement. Within the past forty years medical science has been so completely revolutionized that if the Massachusetts law were to be taken literally and not administered in accordance with modern standards of professional proficiency, the medical examiner system would be a poor substitute for the coroners. Medical advance, so far as the methods of scientific inquiry are concerned, has been especially great in the fields of bacteriology and microscopy.

In larger cities, therefore, it would be necessary to appoint a physician having more than a general medical education. A city should, in the first place, select one who has specialized in pathology and has accumulated a wide experience in the practical investigation of causes and symptoms of diseases. Such a man, once found, should be thoroughly equipped with laboratories for bacteriological and other forms of special examination. In many of the larger cities the machinery for such an organization on these lines already exists in the local medical colleges and hospitals, and if their facilities were utilized would have the additional advantage of supplying the young men enrolled in medical study with the original facts and conditions of disease. New York City, if, and when, it shall be able to discard the present coroner system, will be able to make use of

the splendid laboratories at Bellevue Hospital. In the county of Onondaga, N.Y., an enlightened coroner, already, without compulsion of law, has appointed as his "coroner's physician" the pathological department of Syracuse University.

In the country districts and small cities, especially in the large States, the problem of reform is more difficult. Fortunately, however, the number of their violent and suspicious deaths per capita is very much lower than in more densely populated communities. But the need for careful investigation in individual cases is quite as great. The most hopeful solution would probably be to do away with the coronership entirely and require the governor to appoint for the whole State a chief medical examiner who might, in turn, appoint as many assistant examiners as were needed to cover cases arising in different sections of the State.

Some such program as outlined would do much to pave the way for a complete revision of our methods of inquiry into medical facts in both civil and criminal actions. The fake "expert" and "specialist" has had things far too much his own way, and even the most honest and capable medical witnesses have often been beset with temptations in having to appear in court in behalf of one side of a case. The leaders of the medical profession look forward to the time when medico-legal inquiry will take on the character of a search after the truth rather than an effort to make out a case for a client. In that event the medical examiner, replacing the coroner, may well be made the medico-legal officer.

But the consummation of that program will be difficult. Many people find the coroner a very present help in time of trouble. Perhaps it is the district attorney himself who wants to "put over" something which no honest and well-trained magistrate would countenance. Criminal medical practitioners find in the coroner a haven of refuge; unscrupulous undertakers an avenue to lucrative trade; "shyster" lawyers an unfailing source of valuable special information. And finally, there is the politician, who is the broker of these different kinds of privilege, in addition to the considerable patronage which goes with the office. Before the coronership can be abolished, these beneficiaries will have to be placated, or exposed. But the result will be worth any effort it may require to rid politics of a flagrant source of inefficiency, if not corruption, and to simplify, by just so much, the citizens' task at the ballot box.

# THE IMPROVED OUTLOOK FOR COTTON

BY RICHARD SPILLANE

THE cotton crisis is settling itself. In fact, the past tense might be used, for the crisis is practically over. Nothing commercially that has come out of the complications into which this country was thrown by the European war is more surprising than the manner in which this has come about. The great depression of last year in the cotton industry of the world was considered in an article on "The Cotton Crisis at Home and Abroad" which I contributed to this REVIEW in November. At the same time, reference was made to the various artificial attempts to relieve the situation, such as the "Buy-a-Bale" movement, "Cotton Day,"—for the encouragement of the use of cotton,—efforts at State and Federal legislation, financial pools, and other devices.

Never was there more commotion over an agricultural crop grown on American soil. Never were there more frantic efforts to provide methods of relief.

## THE NATURAL SOLUTION

To-day, only a few months after the period of most intense agitation about the plight of the South, the cotton problem has ceased to be much of a problem. It has provided its own solution through natural laws. The \$135,000,000 loan fund has been made an absurdity by the restrictions placed about the lending of the money by the managers of the fund. The "Buy-a-Bale" movement has been relegated to the lumber-room of American freaks, and the farmers and the shopkeepers, the bankers and the business men of the South are beginning to see a chance of winding up this cotton year with far less of ruin and disaster than they expected or feared. They are not asking for help and they need none. They are learning something about economy they never dreamt of before, and while they have been learning, the conditions attending cotton have been improving rapidly.

With most of Europe at war, sea traffic disorganized, finance more deranged and tangled than ever before, industry the world

under such an unprecedented avalanche of cotton, the idea prevailed that there could be no advance in values until restricted planting this year should indicate that the immense surplus of the 1914 crop would be needed to make up the shortage of the 1915 crop.

Despite all the things that were against it, the price of cotton has gone up,—not a little but considerably. It has not been a spurt but a steady rise. It has advanced in the face of real and artificial obstacles in a way to confound the most experienced men in the trade. Now, half of the crop has been disposed of by the farmers. The weight of the crop, which was crushing not long since, is getting lighter each day. The South will get far more money for its monster crop than seemed possible. It will not get enough to pay the cost of production, but the South will have the great satisfaction of having financed itself in its time of greatest stress. Scarcely a dollar of the \$135,000,000 loan fund has been taken.

## EUROPE TO THE RESCUE

It was Europe that brought the disaster to the South and it was Europe that came to the rescue when the situation was most desperate.

America usually consumes nearly forty per cent. of the American crop. With Europe in the throes of war, the expectation was that American mills would increase their output, broaden their markets, need more cotton and help in a small way to lessen the tension on the cotton grower. The contrary has proved true. American mill takings have been the smallest in years. The American mill stocks on hand to-day are little more than two-thirds of what they were a year ago and the indications are that when the American spinner does purchase his raw material in volume he will have to pay far more for it than have his foreign competitors.

The Japanese were the first to do any



considerable buying. In the days when all the exchanges of the world were closed and conditions in the South were so chaotic that there was no parity, no established basis of value, cotton selling in one county or one State at one price and in another State or county at a radically different figure, some Japanese buyers got busy in Texas. There are records of cotton being sold at five cents a pound, and there are reports of some being sacrificed for even a smaller sum, but this was only where the grower was in acute financial distress. The crop of this season in Texas is extra good as to staple. The Japanese thought the time was opportune. They bought thousands and then tens of thousands of bales. They paid as high as eight cents a pound, although in other States cotton was selling at less than seven cents, and in some instances six cents a pound. Their purchases exceeded 100,000 bales. That is not much in a 16,000,000 crop, but it was evidence to the South that cotton was not friendless.

About this time various men in the cotton mills of Europe began to worry. They had stocks of raw material on hand but not enough to carry them through very many months. They had reports of the price at which cotton was selling in the South. It was so cheap that they longed to get some of it. Ordinarily this would be a simple operation. All they would have to do would be to cable an order to America to buy the actual stuff or, better still, purchase options in the New York, New Orleans, Liverpool, Havre or Bremen cotton exchanges for future delivery. But all the cotton exchanges were closed. No business could be done through them. They could not depend on cabling orders to American houses to make purchases for them because the cable lines were under rigid censorship, and the delays were exasperating. More than that, many cablegrams never were transmitted. The whole cable system was undependable. In addition there was a still greater element to disturb them. They knew of the failure of various American cotton concerns that had been held in high esteem. They had no assurance that if they gave orders for the purchase of cotton the stuff would be delivered in accordance with their needs.

#### HOW THE EUROPEAN MILLS GOT THEIR SUPPLY

In the demoralization and general collapse of the machinery of business, they could not take chances. They considered

the subject in all its phases and then they did the thing they knew was best. They got money from their banks and transferred it to this country. It must have been difficult but they did it. Then they came in person or sent agents to America. Some of them arrived before the New York Cotton Exchange reopened, and some later. Cotton was very low. They bought sparingly at first because it was almost impossible to arrange for shipment.

With the opening of the New York and New Orleans exchanges, there was a decline in prices, but the Southern spot markets did not sag so much as did the market for futures. The buying of the foreigners was being felt. Gradually a change came over the situation. Prices of spots and futures advanced a little, eased off, and then stiffened again. Purchases in the spot markets of the South increased. As they did so a buying of futures by the foreigners developed, and week by week it broadened. Cotton advanced a dollar, two dollars, three dollars, four dollars, five dollars, six dollars and more a bale. Coincident with this advance the situation on the sea improved. Whereas, almost no cotton was exported in the months of August, September and October, there was such a tremendous demand for ships in November, December, and January that freights rose to unheard-of figures. Early this year the rate from Gulf ports to Liverpool was \$1.25 per 100 pounds. That means \$6.25 a bale. To Genoa it was \$1.50 per 100 pounds or \$7.50 a bale. To Rotterdam \$2.50 per 100 pounds or \$12.50 a bale. To Bremen \$3.50 per 100 pounds or \$17.50 a bale. A vessel will carry, generally speaking, four bales of cotton for each ton of its net capacity. Therefore, a ship of 3000 tons net should carry 12,000 bales. That would mean a freight of \$150,000 if the cargo was destined to Rotterdam, \$210,000 if bound for Bremen or \$75,000 if going to Liverpool.

#### THE QUESTION OF GETTING THE SHIPS

To build a ship of 3000 net tonnage costs in England not more than \$200,000. Many shipbuilders of the Clyde or the Tyne would be pleased to contract to turn out ships of that size for less. In normal times the rate on cotton from Gulf ports to Liverpool, Rotterdam or Bremen is about 40 cents per 100 pounds. Surely these are wonderful days for owners of ships. Next to a gold mine, a ship is a thing of marvelous profit. One thing that should be made clear is that

a ship sailing from a Southern port will carry more cotton than one from a Northern port. In the North cotton is "rolled" into the hold; that is, stowed away as any package of goods would be. In the South, the stevedores have trained crews who use jackscrews, and work the bales into the smallest possible space in the tiers they occupy. By the Southern method of "screwing" cotton a ship carries possibly 10 per cent. more in bales than by the system in vogue in the North.

When once the turn came everything seemed to conspire to help the South. The British Government surprised the world by taking cotton out of the list of contraband and declaring that it would not interfere with cotton shipments in neutral bottoms to Germany. Immediately owners of ships of American registry took advantage of the opportunity to get the rich freights offered on cargo to Bremen. To be sure they had to run the risk of the mines that strew the North Sea. They had, too, to overcome the tremendous handicap of sea insurance. They could get insurance on the vessels from the United States Government, but it was another matter to get it on the cargo. But they got it.

That did not end their troubles. They had hoped to obtain pilots to guide their vessels through the channels between the mines. In this they failed. As might be expected in this emergency they took chances. Good luck was with them and the steamships *El Monte*, *Greenbrier* and *Carolyn*, arriving safely in Bremen with cotton, almost paid for themselves in the one voyage. In bringing back cargoes of dyestuffs and other German products on which they get freights almost as high as on cotton they are bringing a rich reward to their owners.

There is no sign of an immediate drop in freight rates. The purchases of cotton by the foreigners who have flocked to America are so large that, steamers being extremely difficult to obtain, schooners and sailing ships are being chartered to take cotton to Europe.

#### THE RAPID RISE IN THE EXPORT FIGURES

A glance at the export figures is illuminating. In the season of 1913-14 our exports were 8,800,000 bales. The cotton season is from August 1 to July 31. Up to October 28, 1914, we had exported only 395,180 bales as against 2,090,000 on the same date in 1913. On January 2, 1915, our exports had risen to 2,830,271 as against 5,611,062 on the same date in 1914. On

January 13, 1915, we passed the 3,000,000 mark. On February 1 our exports were 3,816,492 as against 6,417,027 to that date in 1914.

Since December 1, 1914, our exports have been on a larger scale than in the same period of last season. Our port stocks are in excess of 1,500,000 bales. This is 50 per cent. greater than normal, and the amount on shipboard waiting clearance in February approximated 500,000 bales, or nearly 100 per cent. more than at the same time last season. It seems reasonable to predict that our exports this year will exceed 6,500,000 bales, and if the present ratio of gain is maintained it will be 7,000,000 bales. The foremost American authority now predicts 7,500,000. On February 1, vessels carrying 129,993 bales of cotton left America. This is the largest export record for one day in the history of cotton.

The figures of October 28, 1914, and February 1, 1915, are impressive proof of what the foreign buyers have been doing.

How many of these foreign cotton men there are at present in America it is difficult to estimate. There are at least twenty today in New York. Others are scattered through the South. They are from Bremen, Ghent, Barcelona, Petrograd, Berlin, Alsace, Genoa,—everywhere, it seems. The amount of actual cotton they have bought does not show in the reports alone. Some of the stuff they have purchased has been stored in warehouses. And they have bought futures. One of the foreign buyers is authority for the statement that through the purchases of stuff exported, warehoused or in futures, some of them have accumulated two years' supply. Against their purchases of futures, delivery must be made. That is a great sustaining influence.

Up to this time last year, Northern spinners had taken 1,844,069 bales. Their takings at the time of this writing were 1,612,976. Southern spinners made a better showing, their 1914 figures being 1,566,000 against 1,530,000 at the same time this year.

American spinners are reported now to be buying more freely. They must do so owing to their reduced stocks. The American consumption of cotton last year was approximately 5,800,000 bales. The present crop is estimated at about 16,000,000 bales. If American consumption equals that of last season, and the exports are as indicated in the foregoing, the surplus will be in the neighborhood of 3,500,000. In the light of recent events that has not the terror it in-

spired back in the dark days following the opening of the war. In fact, it can be viewed almost with complacency. Its importance and its value depend upon two things: the duration of the war and the size of the next crop. There is as much basis for doubt as to one as there is to the other.

#### THE PART COTTON PLAYS IN POWDER- MAKING

One thing that has not been considered in its influence on cotton values is the tremendous use of guncotton by reason of the war. All the powder made in the United States is manufactured out of guncotton. The same statement is true as regards Russia, France, and Germany. About 70 per cent. of the powder made in England is manufactured out of guncotton. From 50 to 70 per cent. of the powder made in Austria, Italy, Sweden, and Norway is made of guncotton. For making powder linters are preferred to the cotton of commerce. Linters are the parts of the fiber that adhere to the seed after the ginning. There are machines not only for cutting this fiber from the seed, but, later, for shaving from the seed what remains of the fuzzy stuff. The powder-maker takes these fragments of cotton and chops and grinds them up into particles so small that not one is more than three one-hundredths of an inch in length, and then treats them with nitric and sulphuric acid. Then, he washes them and gives another treatment to them, this time the dose being of ether and alcohol. That makes powder; and for practically every pound of linters used one pound of powder is the result. In America there are five great powder plants. Two,—those at Dover, N. J., and Indian Head on the Potomac,—are owned by the Government. Three,—those at Karney's Point, opposite Wilmington, Del., and those at Parlin, N. J., and Haskell, N. J.,—are owned by private interests. The normal output of the American powder mills is 10,000,000 pounds a year. The extreme capacity is about 15,000,000 pounds. That means 30,000 bales of linters.

Europe's powder-making capacity is from ten to twenty times as great as that of America. It is possible for Europe to produce perhaps 300,000,000 pounds of powder in one year. If linters were used in all this powder-making it would amount to 600,000 bales of linters required by Europe. There is a suspicion that Europe is making and using all the powder it can. If that suspicion is warranted 450,000 bales of linters

would not be an excessive estimate to make for this account. If the powder people have not linters at hand they undoubtedly will turn to cotton. It necessitates more chopping, but that does not signify if the need is great. Some of the cotton bought by foreign agents recently probably will be shot away in rifles and big guns before the war ends. Recent newspaper reports indicate large orders for guncotton for the belligerent governments.

It is the gun of large caliber that eats up cotton. In the firing of a 12-inch gun 300 pounds of powder are required. That means 300 pounds of cotton. One shot of a 12-inch gun requires as much powder as 42,000 shots of the rifle an infantryman uses, or 150 shots from an ordinary field gun. It is in a sea fight that cotton comes into its own, however. Theoretically it is possible for a battleship in firing all its guns to use 5000 to 6000 pounds of powder a minute,—that is ten to twelve bales of cotton.

Linters are used in a multitude of manufactures, and there is a demand for all that are put on the market, so, in a broad sense, all the guncotton used in powder-making in this war means that much less cotton for commerce.

#### REDUCED ACREAGE FOR THE 1915 CROP

Cotton has profited by the shortage of wool and flax. Europe depends on Australia, South America, and South Africa for much of its supply of wool. To a wool crop none too large the situation in regard to vessels added another trouble. Few ships could be spared for the long trips to the South Atlantic or South Pacific, while there was urgent need for them in the comparatively safe and profitable trade in the North Atlantic.

Cotton is entering into many employments where wool formerly was used. This is partly because of the scarcity of wool, and partly due to the high price to which it has gone. The tremendous amount of wool consumed in the winter uniforms and coverings for the European armies accentuates the shortage. No material lasts long with an army.

The summer uniform of the British Army is made largely of cotton. Even the Highland regiments have had to come to cotton. They are reported to be giving up their beloved kilts of highly colored wool for the khaki which makes them less of a target for the enemy.

Cotton, too, has benefited at the expense of

flax. Russia has been the largest producer of flax, its acreage sown to that most ancient of textiles being nearly one-half of the world's total. Northwest France and Belgium have the reputation of growing the best flax. The river Lys has been called the Golden River because of its fields of flax. Along the Lys, and particularly in the neighborhood of Armentières, famous for its flax industries, some of the hardest fighting of the war has been seen. The flax fields have been devastated. The less there is of flax the more the need of cotton.

In round figures the cotton crop of 1914-15 was grown on 36,000,000 acres. Within the next forty-five days ground will be broken and seed put into the soil in various parts of the South for the next crop. That there will be a reduced acreage is unquestionable. Never was there a more earnest agitation to that end. The arguments and the reasons for it are many. Primarily there is the great carryover from the present yield, and the potent influence of the perpendicular drop from 12 cents to 6 cents a pound for cotton. Next there is the high price at which wheat and corn are selling. Then comes the fact that is sinking deeper and deeper into the Southern farmer of the hazard of depending on one crop.

As against these must be set up the following: The situation is not so bad to-day

as it threatened to be, and the grower of cotton is getting more for his crop than he thought three months ago was likely. If cotton should continue the advance in price that began in December, the effect unquestionably will be to soften the extreme views of some persons in respect to curtailment of the acres they put to cotton. Another consideration that counts is that many Southern farmers never have raised anything but cotton and know little about wheat or corn cultivation. Crop demonstrators of the Department of Agriculture have been working among them for years to broaden their views as to diversification, but there are many yet to be taught.

Estimates of the acreage of the crop of 1915 vary from 28,000,000 to 33,000,000. If the difference is split and 30,500,000 is accepted as probable it will be the greatest reduction shown in any one season. The yield per acre may be abnormally low.

Whatever the size of the next crop the world probably will need all of it regardless of how much is left over from the monster yield of 1914-15. The convulsion brought on by the European war has made two things plain in regard to cotton. One is as to the urgency of its needs and the other is that in crises natural laws prevail regardless of makeshifts and temporary expedients.

## AMERICA'S INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL RECOVERY

BY CHARLES F. SPEARE

THE law of economic compensation seems to read that the United States must benefit in its commercial pursuits and in the advancement of its financial influence so long as the European war lasts, for this is the line along which there is least resistance; but it also carries the suggestion that when the war is over and the cost of it is being reckoned up and paid for, this country, in common with every other country, must feel the material sting of it.

Very few, except those who make powder or armor plate, uphold the contention that war pays in a commercial sense, even with a neutral nation. The farmer who raises wheat prospers, to be sure, from the insatiable foreign demand for his product at a 100 per

cent. advance over the average price. But then 100,000,000 of people have to add 50 per cent. to their flour bill, and the Southern grower of cotton must deduct 50 per cent. from the value of his year's crop, while the reduction in his purchasing power increases the mortality of the Southern merchant by from 40 to 50 per cent. The record of failures for the entire country has never been so great as it was in January. Bank clearings at Kansas City and Minneapolis last year increased an average of 5 per cent., at St. Paul 10 per cent., and at smaller grain-distributing centers from 40 to 125 per cent., but they decreased at Houston 12 per cent., at Savannah 23 per cent., at Galveston 9 per cent., and frequently in the last three months of



the year were off 25 to 40 per cent. a week at various Southern points.

#### INCREASED FOREIGN TRADE

War, in its early stages, makes for "spotty" industrial condition beyond its own area. The distinctive trade phase in this country from August 1 to November 1 was the feverish activity of a certain few manufacturing concerns alongside of which were located plants operating at from 25 per cent. to 40 per cent. of normal capacity. Steadily and without interruption this disparity has been reduced and the volume of nearly every line of business is increasing in more direct ratio to the gain in new wealth from supplies being sent to feed, clothe and equip the armies operating in Europe.

The first shock was so great, the lightning struck so hard, even at this distance from the battle line, that 150 American corporations, some of them the strongest in resources we have, were forced to reduce or pass their dividends, involving an annual loss to stockholders of \$125,000,000. At the same time the tax bill of the country was increased \$100,000,000 to meet the deficit in customs receipts and internal collections, and still the deficit grows. It has now reached \$80,000,000 and promises to be \$100,000,000 before summer. The postal deficit alone is about \$15,000,000. But so unevenly are the commercial effects of war distributed that, while this heavy toll was being exacted of the individual, the foreign trade balance of the country was rising to totals never before reached, even in most prosperous years.

Most of us are more concerned with the permanent effect of the war on American business and finance than with the transient benefits to be derived from it by this country of large resources and a neutral place in world politics. We do not care to gloat too openly over the increasing stream of dollars that comes back from across the Atlantic for our bullets and our bandages, but we do want to take every advantage that is legitimately offered to strengthen our trade relations overseas and to effect, so far as we can, a change in the credit status of the country. The immediate condition is forced upon us, and it is quite proper to get from it what we can, but if the perspective of business gets out of plumb because of too intense application to the profits of the moment, the United States will lose the greatest opportunity in its history to place itself abreast of Great Britain and Germany, the one the money power of the world, and the other the so far unbeat-

able distributor of manufactured products in foreign markets.

#### UNCLE SAM AS BANKER

Already there have been suggestions of what we have a right to expect in the matter of division of the trade and banking of the world with those nations that have been in control of both. On one day in January gold arrived in New York from China, from Japan, from France, from Cuba, and for London account, indirectly, from Ottawa. Dollar exchange, the dream of the American international banker, is no longer a possibility for future generations to consider, but a very tangible present quantity. To this date approximately \$125,000,000 of American capital has been loaned to foreign countries because the usual sources of supplies in London and Paris have been closed to them. Some of the beneficiaries are Argentina, Sweden, Canada, Switzerland, Holland, and Russia. It is estimated that Great Britain has invested in her colonies and foreign countries the huge sum of \$20,000,000,000. French foreign investments are placed at \$10,000,000,000 and those of Germany at \$9,000,000,000. Now, as a protective measure, Lloyd George having said that the last hundred million would win the war, the British treasury has issued an edict to the effect that during the struggle the gates shall be closed to all foreign applicants for loans, other than those associated with her in the campaign against Germany.

This is one of the most revolutionary policies ever adopted by the British Government. It gives the United States the opportunity and the entering wedge which she has been without and never could have taken advantage of, had she had them, until now. It is much more important that we nourish this seed that has been sown for us here than that we give up our whole time to the exploitation of trade advantages accruing to us because of the fact that competitors are now flat on their backs. We can pummel them to our hearts' content without retaliation, but how will it be when they regain their strengths?

#### OUR EQUIPMENT TO ENTER FOREIGN TRADE

Economists in England see plainly what America can do if she cares to exert herself, and already they are crying out against the sacrifice by Great Britain of her dearly bought markets.

It is an axiom that trade follows capital more freely than the flag. The science of

foreign investment which Great Britain and Germany have applied so successfully has been ineffectually carried out in this country because of the lack of a surplus of capital for investment abroad and an unwillingness on the part of producers to meet the requirements of the foreign buyer of merchandise. To-day we have, for the first time, the three great requisites to permanent entrance into foreign commercial fields, viz., a huge monthly credit balance, which may reach billion-dollar proportions in a year; freedom from competition from the most successful European sales agents, and a large unemployed plant capacity. More than this, we have the reputation of having gone through the financial crisis of last year without declaring a moratorium, whereas the markets of London and Paris were closed for months against the outside creditor. It will take years for these two great money centers to live down the stigma of a prolonged suspension of debt payments. Meanwhile, the reputation of the United States has been greatly strengthened by the way in which our bankers anticipated all maturing debts to Europe, and even when exchange was quoted at most prohibitive prices they accumulated sufficient supplies to insure the prompt liquidation of all obligations. No other country of similar position can claim as much.

#### WHERE WILL AMERICAN CAPITAL GO?

While we may not become the sole bankers of Argentina, Brazil, and Canada, we shall henceforth share with others in the fruits of those new fields. To-day Canada is absolutely dependent on the United States for such new capital as she needs. Funds have already been advanced to her leading railroad and to her chief cities and provinces. Canada has been buying over \$400,000,000 a year here, and if we are to hold this trade her securities must find a resting place in the boxes of American investors. To August 1 last year Great Britain had loaned the Dominion \$220,000,000, and the annual average for several years has been over \$250,000,000. In the same period she had provided Argentina with \$70,000,000 and Brazil with \$35,000,000, and normally would invest from \$200,000,000 to \$250,000,000 a year in the South American Republics. The additional countries into which American capital is most likely to go, both while the English, German, and French markets are closed and thereafter, are Russia, China, Spain, and Turkey in Asia. Indi-

rectly we are now assisting Japan by taking back in large volume her bonds held in Germany since 1905, repurchasing them about 20 per cent. lower than eager Germans bid for them ten years ago.

#### TRADE WITH SOUTH AMERICA

Foreign trade is a growth of years. Great progress cannot be made in a few months in establishing American markets where they had not been known before. The natural first thought of the exporter, when it was seen that British and German traders would be at a disadvantage, was to strike for South America. We have been getting only 15 per cent. of the inbound trade of Argentina and Brazil and 13 per cent. of that of Chile, although the exports of Brazil to the United States were nearly 40 per cent. of her entire sales and those of the other Republics much out of proportion to imports. So long, however, as this country did not or could not export dollars to South America her sales agents were at a disadvantage, even though they could speak the language and meet the peculiar requirements of credit, merchandising, and shipping.

Up to date the growth of the trade of North America with South America has been disappointingly small, and critics say that we have once more missed our opportunity. This is not a fair judgment in the matter. Conditions in South America for a year have not favored any seller of goods. Before the war a financial crisis in Brazil was foreseen, while the effects of overextension in Argentina were known to be serious. Being young countries, they grow only as they can obtain new capital. Before they can buy merchandise they must sell their raw products or foodstuffs. With their bankers unable to help them, and the purchasing power of their regular customers crippled, and, in addition, shipping made hazardous by an active German fleet in South American waters, the trade of the Republics very nearly collapsed. It is estimated that imports into South American countries since the war began have decreased several hundred millions and to Argentina by \$100,000,000. Those from the United States to Argentina and Brazil for five months, August to December 31, were \$17,500,000 compared with \$38,500,000 in the same period of 1913. To other republics the percentage of decrease was about the same.

American exporters and American bankers have not been frightened by the temporary lack of South American markets. Already

two branches of the most powerful national bank in the United States have been established, one in Buenos Aires and the other in Rio de Janeiro, and drafts are being drawn direct from these capitals on New York which formerly went a round-about-way via London. More sensible exploitation of American goods has been made in South America in the last four months than during the last five years. A considerable percentage of the present advantage of American manufacturers in supplying South Americans with what they want must result in permanent custom for them, even though this country will be under the disadvantage for years yet of small capital outlays as compared with Great Britain and Germany.

#### A FORMER "AMERICAN INVASION" OF EUROPE

Foreign trade opportunities similar to those now existing were responsible for the so-called "American invasion" of Europe in 1900 and 1901. We then had large surplus holdings of grain and a very great surplus of manufacturing plant capacity. In 1900 the foreign trade balance of the United States reached the unprecedented figure of \$648,000,000. New York was to take from London its rank as the money center of the universe. This country was to translate itself immediately from a debtor to a creditor position. In the two years following the excess of exports over imports decreased \$150,000,000, and it was not until 1913 that it finally surpassed the 1900 figure and exceeded \$692,000,000. Last year the balance was down to \$325,000,000, the smallest, with the exceptions of 1909 and 1910, in nearly twenty years.

#### THE BALANCE IN OUR FAVOR

Having in eight months of this fiscal year, the first two of which produced a debit, established a net credit in foreign trade operations of \$500,000,000, it is reasonable to anticipate a balance of approximately \$1,000,000,000 for the fiscal year to June 30, and for the calendar year 1915 of \$1,250,000,000, or nearly twice that of 1900. Supplementing this will be a saving of fully \$100,000,000 in tourist expenditures, of another \$100,000,000 in remittances of aliens, for the foreigners are depositors in our postal savings banks now, where formerly they sent their surplus funds home, and \$25,000,000 to

\$40,000,000 in interest and dividend payments on bonds and stocks repurchased from European holders. Charges for freight and for insurance will be higher, though even here the reduction in imports offsets to a considerable extent the higher outgoing charges, most of which the receiver of the goods at a foreign port pays. In all, a credit of nearly one and a half billion dollars is possible for the twelve months ending on December 31.

At other times, when all of our I. O. U.'s to Europe were canceled, no one seriously feared us commercially or financially. The American banking system was scoffed at and American business methods were under suspicion. To-day both are respected. The credit of American railroads has been immensely helped by the recent Interstate Commerce decision. In every way we are better able to hold what we have recently gained in financial prestige.

#### DEMANDS ON AMERICAN EFFICIENCY

The situation is not, however, without its dangers and its probable disappointments. It is an American tendency to rush for the immediate opportunity or profit and neglect the field of greater permanent success. One of the most careful students of foreign trade in this country has already given warning against "overriding those markets which Great Britain and Germany have cultivated" and in which our participation represents "economic waste." There are trade lines that are irresistibly opposed to outside interference. It may not pay to meddle with them even for the temporary gain offered.

It will be after the war and not during its progress that the great test of American commercial and financial policies will be made. Then a fair field for all competitors will be reopened. The nations that have been fighting each other will not be so exhausted but that they can produce in sufficient quantity to bid for outside contracts, and, if what is already taking place among neutral nations holds good with industrial England and Germany, the products of those countries will be offered here and in every other market of the world at prices which will demand the highest American efficiency in production and distribution to meet. This is the day against which preparation should now be made.

# LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

## NEUTRAL SHIPPING IN WAR TIME

ON the subject of possible differences between the United States Government and Great Britain regarding the search of ships for contraband and the transfer of ships from the American flag, Sir Gilbert Parker, the novelist and Member of Parliament, has stated for the New York *World* his personal conception of the British case. He begins by reminding his readers that in our own Civil War, as also in the Spanish-American War, the United States itself was obliged to search the ships of neutral powers and to question sharply transfers that were made from one flag to another. It is a matter of history that neutral nations have always been vexed by any attempted limitation of their commerce or of the absolute freedom of their ships to roam the ocean at will.

As to the conduct of the British Navy in this war, it is controlled, just as other navies in other wars have been controlled, by international rules; and these rules are not the product of any so-called navalism, but have been slowly formulated and based upon long-existing precedents. British naval predominance in this war, says Sir Gilbert Parker, affects neutral nations only as well-established rules of war have always done in regard to contraband and the transfer of ships. The principles underlying the Declaration of London and its codified rules control the rights of Great Britain in her interference with the shipping of neutral nations.

So far as the recent issue between Great Britain and the United States is concerned, it is not a question of the cargo, but of the ship. England has offered to deliver the cargo to neutral ports. It is only the question of the purchase and transfer of an enemy's ship that is raised. The right of the United States Government to purchase interned German ships in American ports is not disputed, and Sir Gilbert Parker implies that a bona fide purchase of that kind would be recognized by Great Britain as within the rules of war. But the right of these ships, if purchased in this way, to carry cotton to Germany would be contested.

Since the German Government has declared that it has commandeered all the food of the country, it must be assumed that every cargo of food entering Germany becomes, in effect, the property of the government, which has the power of releasing such food for the use of the civil population, or of retaining it for consumption by the military forces. According to the Declaration of London, conditional contraband is liable to capture if proved to be destined for the armed forces of a government enemy state, unless the enemy state shows that it cannot be used for the war in progress. Sir Gilbert Parker calls attention to the language here used,—“cannot,” not “will not.” Germany commandeers all the food of the country and there can no longer exist the presumption that the food will surely go to the civil population. Therefore, the burden of proof is on the shipper to show that his particular cargo will be released for the civil population.

Sir Gilbert Parker declares, in conclusion, that serious trouble between the two countries over these matters is unthinkable. He denies that there is any crisis in the relations between the governments, and expresses the conviction that the whole difficulty may be settled by official diplomacy, provided public sentiment will find its basis in facts.

### Government Purchase of German Ships

In *Bench and Bar*, there is an interesting discussion of the “Transfer of Merchant Vessels During the War,” by Archibald R. Watson, former Corporation Counsel of New York City. In opposition to Senator Root, who had denied the legality of the transfer of vessels owned by belligerents to a neutral nation in time of war, Mr. Watson maintains that the law, as it stands, gives ample authority for the United States Government to purchase interned German vessels, providing, of course, such purchases are bona fide, and not made with an understanding that the Germans will be allowed to repurchase at the end of the war. Every Attorney-General of the United States, says



Mr. Watson, and every Secretary of State for more than half a century past, before whom the question has come, has seemed to agree upon the proposition as stated by Attorney-General Cushing made in 1854, when it was said:

A citizen of the United States may purchase a ship of a belligerent power at home or abroad, in a belligerent port or on the high seas, provided the purchase be made bona fide, and the property be passed absolutely and without reserve; and the ship so purchased becomes entitled to bear the flag and receive the protection of the United States. (Vol. VI., Opinions Attorney-General, 638.)

Mr. Watson also cites an opinion of the Hon. William M. Evarts, who was Attorney-General before he became Secretary of State, to this effect:

The right of Americans to buy foreign-built vessels and to carry on commerce with them is clear and undoubted. . . . As a consequence, an adjunct of this right, that of flying the American flag, cannot be prohibited. If circumstances justify on the part of the Consular officers an opinion that the sale is honest, and that the vessel has really become the property of a citizen of the United States, she may properly fly the flag of the owner's country, as an indication of such ownership and as an emblem of the owner's nationality.

Still later, in the case of the *Benito Esten-ger* (177 U. S., 568), Chief Justice Fuller said:

Transfers of vessels *flagrante bello* were originally held invalid, but the rule has been modified, and is thus given by Mr. Hall, who, stating that in France their sale is forbidden, and are declared

to be prize in all cases in which they have been transferred by neutrals after the buyers could have knowledge of the outbreak of war, says: "In England and the United States the right to purchase vessels is in principle admitted, they being in themselves legitimate objects of trade as fully as any other kind of merchandise, but, the practise of fraud being great, the circumstances attending a sale are severely scrutinized, and the transfer is not held to be good, if it is subjected to any condition or tacit understanding by which the vendor keeps an interest in the vessel, or its profits, control over it, and power of revocation or a right to its restoration at the conclusion of war."

According to the conclusions arrived at by the delegates to the International Naval Conference held at London, from December 4, 1908, to January 6, 1909, a transfer of a belligerent vessel to a neutral flag after the outbreak of hostilities would be deemed wrong unless shown not to have been made "in order to evade the consequences to which an enemy vessel, as such, is exposed." This is Mr. Watson's comment on the provision in question:

Can it reasonably be said, taking a concrete example, that a German steamer now lying at her dock in Hoboken is "exposed" to capture by the British? Undoubtedly such a vessel would be "exposed" to capture if "as such," that is, if as "an enemy vessel," she attempted to navigate the high seas. But as a neutral vessel, flying the stars and stripes, she is *not* an enemy vessel, and consequently not liable to capture as such, nor does the Declaration of London, as we understand it, so provide. Nor, if this be true, can it be said that a valid, unconditional, and complete sale of such a vessel, then proceeding to engage in neutral commerce, was made to "evade" the consequences to which an "enemy vessel, as such, is exposed."

## CONTRABAND, ABSOLUTE AND CONDITIONAL

THERE has not been for a century past so widespread a discussion of contraband and the various issues arising from it as the world has witnessed since the outbreak of the present war. It is a question that concerns belligerents and neutrals alike, and can be settled only by reference to the recognized canons of international law. Several helpful expositions of the principles involved in the discussion have been published during the last few months. One of these, a communication entitled "Are Foodstuffs Contraband of War?" by Harley W. Nehf, appeared in the *Annals of the American Academy* (Philadelphia) for November last, and more re-

cently an article on "Neutral Rights and Duties" was contributed to the February *North American Review* by Mr. C. T. Revere.

Each of these articles recognizes the classification of goods formulated by Grotius: contraband,—those articles which are of use chiefly or only in war; non-contraband,—those which are of no use in war; conditional contraband,—those that are useful both in war and in peace. The Declaration of London which was drawn up by the naval conference in 1909, added a fourth group to consist of those articles which may be made contraband by special declaration of the belligerents.

In the *Annals* article, to which we have alluded, Mr. Nehf names, among his illustrations of contraband articles, saddle, draught and pack animals suitable for military operation. In his list of articles conditionally contraband he includes foodstuffs, forage, clothing suitable for soldiers, gold and silver, vehicles, vessels, flying machines, fuel, powder not specially prepared for war, telegraphs, telephones, and material for building railways. Among the articles not contraband Mr. Nehf includes raw materials of the textile industries, rubber, metallic ores, paper, agricultural and textile machinery, precious stones and furniture.

As to the general principle of this classification there is no controversy. It is only when specific articles are added to the list of absolute contraband that difficulties arise. As Mr. Revere points out, no two treaties between different nations agree exactly on the list of articles which shall be regarded as contraband or innocent. With the advance in industry, military necessities have changed.

At the time of the Peace of Utrecht not a thought was given to copper products, but as a result of our electrical development, these have become noxious articles. In the days of sailing vessels "naval stores," *i. e.*, resin, turpentine, etc., were important items in the contraband list. As the steamship replaced the sailing vessel they lost their illegal character. But in the present war, resin and turpentine are back on the contraband list, not as naval stores, but as ingredients for explosives.

In Mr. Revere's opinion the likelihood of any definite and final agreement on the contraband list seems to be precluded by the essential nature of the problem. Conditions are changing so rapidly that restriction by specific articles might prove highly injurious to a belligerent.

On the other hand, an undue extension of the contraband list may result practically in a blockade. Precedent in international law is strongly against such an advantage for a belligerent who holds command of the sea. The tendency is toward the view that if one belligerent decides to shut off the enemy from commerce, an effective blockade must be maintained. A blockade of an effective character is both dangerous and expensive, and the hostile who attempts it is entitled to the fruits of his effort. Any student of warfare can see at a glance the risk attendant upon a blockade of Hamburg and Bremen. On the other hand, it would be comparatively easy, by stopping neutral vessels at Gibraltar, Suez, *i. e.* English Channel, and the entrance to the North Sea, to prevent any shipment whatever from reaching the Germanic allies.

Neutrals, however, can and do insist strongly

that the contraband list shall not be extended unduly beyond the "criterion of warlike usefulness." The privilege must not be used as a weapon against the civil population of the enemy country. Articles like foodstuffs are noxious only when destined to the naval or military forces of the foe. A recent instance of this was furnished by our protest in 1904 over Russia's seizures of rice shipments to Japan. The most notable example, however, was furnished by our controversy with Great Britain in 1793, when an attempt was made to block all shipments of grain to France in an effort to reduce that country "to reasonable terms of peace."

Jefferson, then Secretary of State, declared that the position that provisions were contraband "in the case where the depriving an enemy of these supplies is one of the means intended to be employed for reducing him to reasonable terms of peace," or in any case but that of a place actually blockaded, was "entirely new"; that reason and usage had established "that, when two nations go to war, those who choose to live in peace retain their natural right to pursue their agriculture, manufactures, and other ordinary vocations; to carry the produce of their industry, for exchange, to all nations, belligerent or neutral, as usual; to go and come freely, without injury or molestation; and, in short, that the war among others shall be, for them, as if it did not exist."

The character of the merchandise, however, is only one phase of the consideration of contraband. The destination of the merchandise has given to belligerents even more trouble than the character of the shipments. Although belligerents are always inclined to press their case against a neutral on the mere suspicion that the destination of the shipment of goods is hostile, precedent is quite clear upon the point that there must be proof, very strong if circumstantial, that the destination is illegal in order to justify seizure. The mere fact that contraband-trade may have been general with a certain port gives no ground for action in a specific instance.

While admitting that prize-court decisions in general have been marked by a broad equity, Mr. Revere contends that, despite the eventual justice of the prize court, the harm done to neutral commerce can never be measured by the compensation afforded by belligerents. "Damages may be awarded for illegal seizures and detentions, but no reparation is offered for the paralysis that is visited upon trade. Commerce suffers more through the cargoes that are not shipped than from those that are captured."

Mr. Revere feels justified in the prophecy that something will be done after the war is over to modify the rules of conduct relating to the clash of neutral and belligerent interests. It may at least be expected that some new principle will be added to the code of international law.

## WHO WILL PROFIT BY THE WAR?

IT is to stamp out the curse of war that "our men kill and are being killed, for the ultimate object of the conflict now raging is the destruction of militarism." So writes the Viscount Georges d'Avenel, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (January 15). Going on to develop his subject, he says:

It is considered by many wise men a dream never to be realized, but, even to the end of the world it will hold true, that anyone who sees great things coming twenty-four hours before the rest of mankind will be put down as a visionary if not a positive fool.

He points out further that no one can calculate or predict what the results of the present conflict may be. For no one can discount the forces that sway peoples.

If material interests alone were to be considered, one might arrive at plausible conclusions, but where the passions enter into play, predictions are well nigh impossible, for peoples are influenced by their passions far more than they are guided by material considerations.

The more complex the conditions of modern life the greater the shock consequent upon the abrupt interruption of its accustomed course. In the days of the epic wars the spinning-wheel and the loom continued to work in the villages, for the wool and the flax grew at the very doors of the spinners, and the products were easily disposed of in the markets of the neighboring cities. But in our day a few hours are enough to dislocate the whole order of things, machines stop, manufacturing is suspended, and transportation and shipping are very materially affected, while the working masses find themselves suddenly plunged into a state of distress which was unknown in the less "advanced" age of their ancestors. The modern world is like a house lighted by electricity. One defective wire is sufficient to cause total darkness. The more complex civilization becomes the more it is at the mercy of mere accidents. In proportion as the bonds between nations become stronger, so do the shocks that affect them become more quickly and deeply felt.

This solidarity, he maintains, between peoples is "growing in spite of us. It is not due to the conscious act of any man, nor can the will of any man check its growth."

The belligerents in this war, he goes on to say, are suffering from the ills that they inflict, although perhaps in a less degree than do their enemies. But they are suffering, nevertheless. The neutrals suffer also far more than they profit by the temporary closing of competitive markets. Those who cannot buy are losers as well as those who cannot sell. While France stood in dire need of petroleum, the oil was overflowing

in the reservoirs of the United States, and the producers of cotton in the new world stood helpless before an unprecedented harvest, while the textile mills of the old were closed for want of raw material. The currency panic caused by the war extended over the globe and closed the stock exchanges for months together. This condition of paralysis in national life affects agriculture far less than it does industry. Consequently each country suffers in just the proportion that its population is industrial or agricultural. Germany is clearly in the first class, for she has thrown the bulk of her wealth into industrial development.

In direct answer to the question of "Who will gain by this war?" the Viscount d'Avenel says:

Whatever the total sum of the indemnity, the price of the war even for the victorious Allies will represent an enormous loss if it is not followed by a general disarmament. Victory in itself will not be a gain if Europe, whatever the changes in the map of the continent, continues to be an armed camp, because the victory of the Allies had not been sufficiently decisive. There would result no material or radical economic changes, and the burden of militarism would continue to weigh as heavily upon the whole world.

During the last years of the "armed peace" the great powers spent the enormous sum of 10,000,000,000 of francs for military purposes. Think how different things would be if this vast sum of money, instead of serving in a work of destruction, were applied to the development of the natural resources of the globe. Consider the value of the millions of men who compose the armies, who might henceforth be employed in increasing the productiveness of the soil. Europe would not be long in repairing the damages of the war and in healing her wounds, and the whole world would benefit by her prosperity could disarmament be brought about.

It is therefore the whole world that is to gain by this war if the Allies are victorious, he insists.

"But, if disarmament is the only solution worth while," concludes the Viscount d'Avenel, "it is also the most difficult to bring about. Germany would resign herself to this only *in extremis*. Germany will fight with all the strength of desperation before she gives up her militarism, which alone would make the dream of future successes possible. And just because of this fact, disarmament will be the hardest and costliest solution to obtain. But whatever the price paid for it,—for any victory without it would be no victory at all,—the generation to come will never think the price too great."

## A GERMAN ECONOMIST ON CONDITIONS IN WAR TIME

THROUGHOUT the world the economic balance has been greatly disturbed by the present war. This disturbance is, of course, greatest in the countries actually engaged in the struggle. Hence it is particularly interesting to find a keen analysis of the economic situation in Germany created by this vast upheaval. The analysis we refer to is from the able pen of Werner Sombart, who is one of the leading authorities in Germany on economic questions and incumbent of the chair of National Economics at the University of Berlin. Professor Sombart's article appears in a recent number of the *Internationale Monatsschrift* (Berlin). He considers, first, the alterations directly effected by a state of war:

1. The most important thing, naturally, is the cessation of a large amount of work accomplished in times of peace by the wage-earners now called to the colors. We do not know just how many of these there are, but it is estimated that the number is not far from a third of the total male wage-earning population (in 1907 this comprised 18,000,000 in round numbers). If we compare this with the figures of former wars,—in '70-'71 there were about a million and a half men under arms, comprising something like one-eighth of the male wage-earners,—we see that never before has such a vast external disturbance affected the economic life of a people.

2. There is the requisition of horses amounting undoubtedly to from one-quarter to one-third of all our horses.

3. The closing of the railroads to freight and passenger traffic in the first weeks of the war.

4. The interruption of foreign trade relations. The amount of this can be estimated pretty closely by reckoning the exchange of goods which goes on in time of peace with the countries now at war. According to this, our trade with Belgium, France, Russia, Great Britain, and Japan (quite aside from that with Servia, Montenegro, and Monaco) is, in round numbers, four-tenths of our entire trade. Besides this, many goods cannot be exchanged with neutral countries because their export is forbidden. Moreover, the confusion due to war renders over-sea traffic extremely difficult. Hence we may consider that far more than half of our foreign business has been interrupted by the war.

Dr. Sombart divides these disturbances into two categories: those that interfere with the mechanism or "form" of economic conditions, and those that interfere with their substance. By substance he understands the raw materials and the labor which together constitute the means of livelihood of the populace, while the mechanism has reference to the whole complex system of markets and

credits by which trade is conducted. Obviously the welfare of a nation suffers directly from any contraction or disturbance of either material supplies or the mechanism by which these are distributed. He illustrates this by the following simple figure:

Flour can be ground only on condition, first, that enough grain is fed into the mill, and, secondly, that the mill is rightly run.

He next considers the actual manner in which war interferes with industrial conditions. For example, thirty men may be drafted from the force of a factory. Not only does the factory lose their own labor, but, because the chain is broken, the whole force may have to stop work. Or again, suppose the supply of raw material falls short,—he instances cotton, of which Germany's annual import has been worth \$150,000,000,—the same result comes to pass, the whole force must be laid off. Such disturbances are much more far-reaching in their effects than at any previous time because organization is more elaborate and complex. Then, too, in 1870 the agricultural population predominated, whereas now the industrial population is in excess. Moreover, in former times producers were more or less independent hand-craftsmen, whereas now they are factory hands.

If one of two independent shoemakers is called to bear arms the other can quietly continue his trade. But if the cutters and sole-stitchers are called away from a shoe factory, the finishers must stop work also. However, it is not these disturbances of production that Professor Sombart considers the heaviest industrial ills produced by war. Even worse, perhaps, is the stagnation of the market. And the more highly organized and differentiated business is, the worse are the effects of this stagnation. If, for example, there is an interdependence between three concerns, the loss of marketing opportunities by one immediately affects the other two. In the same way if thirty concerns are connected a stagnation of sales of the finished product means stagnation all along the line.

Such stoppage of sales must occur because so many groups of buyers fall out of line. First, the soldiers at the front; second, domestic manufacturers, who cease buying raw materials on the one hand and curtail their purchases as private individuals on the other; third, the foreign pur-



chaser of our exports. But, naturally, every buyer who falls out implies a corresponding decrease of power to buy in turn on the part of the seller, and so it goes. But the circulation of goods stagnates not only because so many men cannot buy, but very often, also, because so many will not buy, although able to do so. . . . Thus accumulate the causes which have a tendency to bring about a stoppage of the mechanism of business. And the most highly paradoxical result of the outbreak of war is that millions of men are in danger of being thrown out of work for no other reason than because so many millions have already stopped working.

Having thus set the situation before us, Dr. Sombart proceeds to discuss such remedial measures as are possible. Some of the dangers are at least in part self-remedial. Thus as soon as mobilization was complete, traffic conditions tended to right themselves; trade with neutral countries likewise began to recover from its first shock; and finally the "temper" or "*Stimmung*" of the people, he tells us, has become more favorable to the resumption of normal conditions. There is more of a desire to buy in various circles, and this will extend into wider areas "if we continue to be victorious." "Already," he says, "the ladies have begun to think again about their toilets; again the public is attending theaters, concerts and lectures; the business-men are beginning to advertise again, and the newspapers,—grown alas! so lean,—are slowly beginning to fatten up a bit." He reminds us too that the war "heals some of its own wounds." Thus there is a demand for all sorts of goods for the army, and these are provided not only by government funds, but by the immense subscription funds which have been collected by all sorts of official and semi-official bodies.

Already we hear that many branches of production,—those that serve immediately the needs of the army and the war,—are in full swing. This has an immediate economic influence; these factories become purchasers of raw materials, accessory materials and machines; their workmen become the customers of innkeepers, shopkeepers, etc., and these, in their turn, are able to increase their purchasing.

However, at present, there is still much of damage and evil condition, which can only be conquered by a purposeful effort,—and since the outbreak of the war there have been,—at least with us in Germany,—efforts to that end with admirable forethought, firmness, and perseverance.

This fight against the foes of our economic system is twofold: against the threatened breaks in the economic circuit, and against threatened impoverishment in material supplies and in energies . . . and to carry on the fight we have three armies ready: 1. The public and semi-public bodies (state, province, municipality, insurance organizations, etc.). 2. The business world. 3. The general public.

Space fails us to give in detail Dr. Sombart's account of the endeavors of these three "armies." He gives the highest praise possible to the Reichsbank for its able support of the system of credit and the way it has borne the enormous burden caused by the strain on credit with only a few alterations of the banking laws. He emphasizes the fact that Germany is the only one of the warring nations which has managed to get along without declaring a general moratorium. He has high praise, too, for the way the government has handled the question of providing the people with food supplies and raw materials without allowing private interests to charge exorbitant prices. Many communities and districts have bought up large quantities of food supplies in order to supply them to needy individuals at moderate prices.

He expresses the belief that the government will succeed in handling the grave question of unemployment satisfactorily. He finds, too, that government measures are being supported by the commercial world. Many business men, for example, have shown their public spirit by such methods as keeping their plants running in spite of the slackness of the market, by continuing to pay the wages of their employees who have gone to the front, by extending credit, etc. In many places, as Berlin and Hamburg, the business men have combined to establish War Credit funds, which have been useful to the men engaged in big enterprises just as ordinary loan funds have been to the smaller men.

With regard to the general public, Dr. Sombart is less complacent, at any rate as regards its early attitude. Among its sins against the general economic welfare he enumerates the following: The unnecessary laying in of stores of provisions; the hoarding of cash; too much "saving" when not enforced by necessity; the discharging of servants; the stopping lessons, etc. (again in those cases when not necessitated); the failure to pay debts; urgent demands upon debtors; the doing of work for nothing which might have been done at a living wage by one of the unemployed.

On the whole, he finds the situation not so bad as might have been expected:

We should have thought a world war would stop the economic machinery entirely. But we now see there is no danger of this. . . . And it is not to be thought that the future will make things essentially worse. The greatest injury we suffer, naturally, is the break in our relations with foreign lands. But even this is not necessarily fatal. In any event, we have enough food in the country to live on. The raw materials for some of the

most important industries . . . we can surely get through neutral states . . . e. g., Swedish iron ore. Other things, such as copper, wool, and cotton, we hope to obtain by way of neutral countries. Presumably England's efforts to have them declared contraband will be successfully controverted by America, who is so strongly interested in their export.

In conclusion Professor Sombart declares that instead of shattering all theories of the economists the war has demonstrated that it may be classified under the rubric of a "simple crisis of stagnation of the markets," and that the resultant damage has been less than was expected. He points out certain lessons that the economists have learned: "that the

capitalistic status may be interrupted at desired points by governmental initiative without public economy being injured thereby. We have seen with astonishment that a not unessential part of the conduct of economic affairs has been taken over by government authorities. We have had the experience of having exports forbidden by the state as it sees fit, of having maximum prices established, of having the supplies of merchants and manufacturers brought under control, of having magazines established, of production regulated at its will (the distilleries! the slaughter houses!) and more of the same sort of measures."

## GERMAN IDEALISM AND THE WAR

THE celebrated German writer, Professor Rudolf Eucken, whose letter to Americans anent the European war recently aroused so much controversial interest, has published in a recent number of the *Illustrirte Zeitung* some philosophical reflections upon the war and idealism which are of interest as showing the view taken in Germany in regard to certain points at issue.

After speaking of the very different aspect of the Christmastide of 1914 from that of happier years and commenting upon the violent upheavals which will make that year forever memorable, he says:

Such incessant agitation holds no small danger,—the danger of a crumbling of life into mere single detached moments, the danger of a blunting of our emotions and a fatiguing of our souls; stronger and stronger grows the need of stepping back a few paces from these separate events and experiences and grasping as a whole the things that have happened. This may help us to preserve that strength of soul and cheerful courage so stringently demanded by the present and the future. . . .

This year has brought us experiences both sad and joyous; the sad, fortunately, are from without and the joyful from within. There has been a notable swing of the pendulum with regard to our relations with foreign countries. We were justified that we possessed, if not the love, at any rate the esteem of the great majority of nations; now we are not only forced to suffer the envy and hate of our direct opponents, but even among neutral peoples so much disaffection against us has been displayed, such unwillingness and inability to put themselves in our place, that it is very clearly shown how foreign we have remained to the others despite all external points of contact.

For example we had recently established a multiplicity of cultural bonds with America and now there come to us thence overwhelming expressions of hostile nature. We also had believed ourselves to be in a close community of culture with French Switzerland, yet now Geneva seems

to have become (in defiance of Swiss neutrality) a very focus of agitation against Germany.

But while such misunderstanding and such passion rages against us in the outside world, we need have no fear, for this year has shown a mighty strength in the German people, a strength that none of its foes would have dreamed of attributing to it.

This strength Professor Eucken finds in the united feeling of the people, the abandonment of selfish aims and partisan feeling and the boundless readiness for self-sacrifice. He declares proudly that the Germans have shown themselves a nation of heroes, first in the soldiers, who with "a wonderful blending of courageous spirit and technical ability have bravely and victoriously met the onslaught of half a world," and secondly in the populace who have supported them spiritually and materially. He continues:

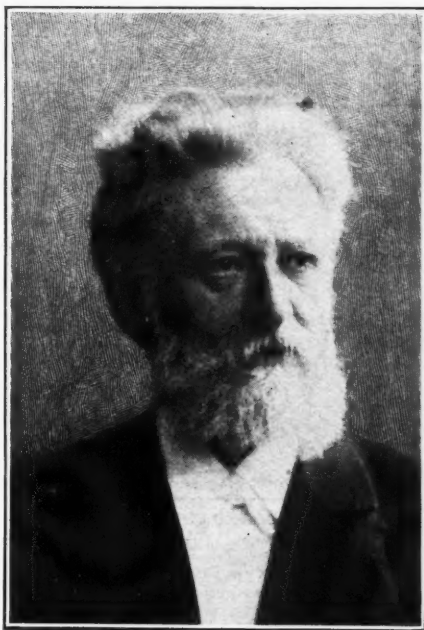
The war was forced upon our people by foes who, envious of our growing greatness, have long cherished sinister plans; even if the war could have been avoided now it was bound to come in a few years, and in that case conditions would have been less favorable to us. Thus the struggle came upon us as an unavoidable necessity. But we did not accept this necessity with sighs and groans . . . we immediately transformed fate into the deed of our own free will. And we have done this all the more because in this struggle we have wagered the highest conceivable stake. For it is not this or that particular point that has put us at discord with our opponents; but our whole national and political entity has become an offense to them. Since, therefore, they would fain annihilate, or at least deeply humiliate us, we find ourselves drawn into a fight for our very existence as a nation.

As this whole position was new and the weapons forged against us hitherto unheard of, the past can offer us no counsel; we must stand on our own feet, discover new paths, set free new forces . . . our life has broken the chains of the past

and stands wholly in the present. In this present the past and future meet,—on the one hand we must preserve the things of value aforesaid won, on the other we must lay a secure foundation for the future.

In all this we recognize by means of the deed the belief in the capability of humanity to be raised to a higher level, in the power of original creativeness, in the superiority of spiritual power to mere fate, and are uplifted into a realm of freedom.

It is this which Dr. Eucken calls Idealism in the Form of Life. The ideal of the Fatherland is, to-day, as never before, he says, the center of living and striving, no more a mere abstraction but a living reality in terms of flesh and blood. Closely knit with this struggle to maintain the Fatherland as a living and spiritual entity is the anxious care to preserve and strengthen the individuality of the German *Kultur*, and he declares solemnly that it is not a dream of power and conquest which inspires this, but rather the earnest aim to bring to their full flower the peculiar intellectual gifts implanted by nature and developed by their history in the Germans, for the sake of humanity as well as for themselves. However, this lofty purpose seems to be meant rather for posterity, since the good professor is distinctly pessimistic about present-day humanity (except



DR. RUDOLF EUCKEN

in the Fatherland!), and closes with further bitter remarks about envy and hate, malice and slander.

## THE FORTRESS IN MODERN WARFARE

EUROPEAN scientific journals have been variously affected by the war. German publications, as a rule, have preserved very nearly their normal scope and appearance. Many of them, in fact, give no token of the exceptional state of public affairs now prevailing, apart from the sinister record, month by month, of the death on the western or eastern battlefields of brilliant young professors and privat-docents, many of whom are mourned throughout the world. The English journals have also generally pursued the even tenor of their way, though their contents are somewhat more strongly tinged by contemporary events.

On the other hand, many of the French scientific periodicals have been transformed by the war. This is most conspicuously true of the leading French journal of popular science, *La Nature*. This well-known weekly was suspended at the outbreak of hostilities, on account of the fact that most of its literary and mechanical staff had been called to the colors. Since it resumed publication, toward the end of last year, it has been almost en-

tirely concerned with those branches of science and art bearing directly upon warfare in general and the present conflict in particular, together with various subsidiary topics.

A recent number of this journal undertakes to explain the surprising facility with which the German siege artillery demolished the "impregnable" fortresses of France and Belgium, and to forecast the manner in which, in the light of such occurrences, the defense of towns will be conducted in the future. We read:

In explaining these disasters it has been customary to invoke the exceptional power of certain ultra-secret engines, such as the Krupp mortar of 420 millimeters or the Austrian of 305 millimeters. As a matter of fact, they should be attributed to much simpler causes. Until within a few years a siege gun could be brought into action only after a very solid wooden platform had been erected to support it during its discharge, and the laborious construction of this platform could not escape the notice of the besieged. Thus the artillery of the fortress had ample time to open fire and prevent its installation. Indeed, the defenders might cherish the hope of prolonging for a considerable time,



ARMORED CUPOLA OF A MAUBEUGE FORT WRECKED BY A GERMAN SHELL.

with the aid of searchlights, captive balloons, and other modes of observation, the period of investment during which they would have an incontestable superiority in artillery. The advent of shells containing very powerful charges of explosives was not, in itself, calculated to disturb seriously the equanimity of the besieged, as these shells could not be thrown in large numbers until many batteries had been installed and provisioned, and the artillery of the fortress could see to it that this eventuality was more or less indefinitely postponed.

The appearance of *rapid-fire* heavy artillery was destined to alter the situation completely. With the facilities for transportation offered by motor tractors and the facilities for rapid firing offered by the modern gun-carriage, a siege battery can to-day approach a fortress under suitable cover, be installed in a favorable location in less than ten minutes, and open fire almost immediately. Before the besieged can get the range it will have landed its projectiles in some part of the fortifications, destroyed the metal and concrete roofs, and rendered the place uninhabitable through the effect of the deleterious gases produced by the explosion of melinite bombs in the narrow courts on which the casemates open.

Whether these projectiles weigh 40, 120, 340, or nearly 1000 kilograms is immaterial. Provided they split open the casemates, overturn the parapets, demolish the turrets, and asphyxiate the garrison, all resistance will become impossible, and the infantry of the besiegers will be able to approach the glacis with impunity and capture the fort, after penetrating the densest wire entanglements almost without striking a blow. Only the effective fire of neighboring forts would be able to arrest their victorious assault, and what help is to be expected of these works if they are themselves subjected to an energetic bombardment?

Two ways out of the difficulty commend themselves to the attention of the military engineer. First, between the forts in the circle of defense about a town we must have

lines of trenches in which to dispose infantry whose business it will be to oppose an assaulting column. Second, the batteries of the defense should be as mobile as those of the attack, and thus ready to change their location as soon as they begin to suffer from the enemy's fire.

The only advantage henceforth left to the defense is the possibility of organizing well in advance lines of trenches for its infantry and numerous carefully hidden shelters for its guns. Roads, well screened from the observation of the attack, will, moreover, permit the rapid transportation of these guns from one shelter to another, while the enemy is wasting his efforts in delivering a crushing fire on points which are unoccupied.

Thus we see that the open order of fighting is as essential in the defense of a fortress as in operations in the field. The only difference that will subsist between a siege and a battle of the nature of those fought during the past few months is that the scene of conflict in the former case will be one already determined in time of peace by the necessity of ensuring the possession of some center of railways or other lines of communication, and that it will be possible to organize the defense at leisure; with trenches, numerous concrete shelters for the infantry reserves, artillery parapets well screened and judiciously distributed, hidden communicating roads, etc.

Moreover, this battlefield must be so planned that the defending troops cannot under any circumstances be caught between two fires. It must, therefore, have a breadth in all directions of at least 10 kilometers. If the center of the position is to remain immune from the effects of bombardment, the first line of defense will need to be placed and maintained at a distance of 10 kilometers therefrom. Hence, according to circumstances, it will be necessary to assume a circumference of 32 or 64 kilometers. Such extensive fronts can be defended only by veritable armies, and not by ordinary garrisons.



## SERVIA'S RESOURCES AND NEEDS

**M**ME. SLAVKO GROUITCH, wife of the Secretary General of Foreign Affairs of Serbia, who was formerly Miss Mabel Dunlop, of West Virginia, arrived in America a few weeks ago from Belgrade to get generous Americans interested in supplying the Serbs who have been driven from their farms with seeds for planting and agricultural implements.

Servia is essentially an agricultural country, nine-tenths of the population being employed on the land.

It was estimated recently that 308,000 families derive a living from agriculture, and of these 273,000 have their own land. The soil of Servia has no superior in fertility in all Europe. Two yearly crops of hay, wheat, and barley are grown; oats, hemp, and tobacco thrive, and several sorts of maize and the sugar beet. Grapes, sweetish but of excellent quality for the making of wine, give a good yield in some parts of the country, likewise the prune plum.

The Serb peasant provides for all his wants from his land, with the exception

of a few articles like sugar and salt. Even the clothes he wears and the table linen for the family use are woven upon hand-loom in his house. The raising of cattle and hogs naturally is a staple industry. Farm animals before the war were plentiful; even the humblest landholder had pigs and poultry to run about under the plum trees that surround his peaked-roofed cottage. It will be seen from even a slight knowledge of the source of Servia's food supply that the wholesale destruction of agriculture by the Austrian invasions and the necessities of war, if not speedily remedied by the prompt giving of seeds and farming implements, will bring about a general famine in the devastated districts and great loss of life. Mme.

Grouitch, in a statement to the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, has written eloquently of the needs of her adopted country.

As a result of the second Austrian invasion of Servia, her richest agricultural district lies a barren waste. Houses, barns, and granaries have been burned, livestock killed, or consumed, or driven away. During the first invasion, in the month of August, such frightful atrocities were perpetrated in all the villages of the invaded region, even those which were not in the battle line, that the terror-stricken inhabitants fled at

the first rumor of a second war. Unable to carry anything with them, they all suffered horribly from the cold and distress. Hundreds of children died from the cold and exposure.

An eye-witness describes the scene:

Women, children, old men, cripples, hardly clothed, arrived at every railroad station where the trains, composed of open goods cars, took them to the region behind the lines of the Servian army. I have never seen such a huddled, miserable mass of humanity many of them with packs on their backs, women with children carried any way, the older ones helping the younger, all having marched for several days in terror and without food. Many women were insane. I shall never

forget the despair of one, a mother of six children, who, having lost them, was going about crying and calling their names.

The Servian Government not only transported these fugitives to places of safety, but erected sheds and tents for shelter, and a ration of bread and soup was given out to them each day, as to the soldiers. The Servian Red Cross has distributed clothing, blankets, and such other comforts as have been sent out by the British and American Red Cross and relief societies. Now that the country is freed from the enemy comes the necessity for sending these people back to their homes. To do this requires a whole organization, which the Servian Government, overwhelmed as it is by the difficulty of pro-



MADAME GROUITCH



WOUNDED SERB SOLDIERS

viding for its large army, which must be kept always on the defensive lest a new invasion take place, cannot provide. For that purpose committees have been organized in England and in America to obtain food, farming implements, grain, and seeds for planting, and, in fact, everything that can serve for the rehabilitation of this fugitive people.

The Serbian peasants own their homes, and each one knows exactly where he belongs, and whole caravans are even now marching across the country in an attempt to return to their homes, but there is still danger of their dying of starvation, as only those who are near the large military camps can be fed by the authorities. So that once material for relief has been collected, it will be necessary to have volunteers, especially those having some knowledge of agriculture, to go out and personally superintend the distribution of this material. It is hoped that young men and women from the agricultural colleges in America will feel that this is an excellent opportunity to apply the knowledge that they have gained in a perfectly virgin country, where scientific philanthropy can be demonstrated perhaps more perfectly than there was ever before an opportunity of doing in an agricultural way.

One would be glad to see agricultural relief units organized in exactly the same way that the Red Cross units have been organized, each unit prepared to look after a certain number of families in a given district, to aid the peasant-women farmers in the first work of ploughing and re-planting, as well as in seeing that no one suffers for lack of necessary food.

Women have always done a large part of the farm work in the Balkans, and have, during all three wars, taken a great pride in keeping the home and the farm going as perfectly as when the fathers, husbands, and brothers were present. During this last autumn, when the harvest was being got in, the writer frequently saw the peasant women cutting and stacking the corn late in the evening, and even by moonlight.

Many of the peasant soldiers in the hospitals regret the war for but one thing,—that it left this heavy burden of work upon the womenkind at a moment when they felt their place was at home.

Absolutely all the crops grown in any part of America can be grown in Serbia, where there is a rich alluvial soil watered by many streams. The women do, in addition to the field work, all the arts and crafts of primitive peoples. The hand-loom stands in every cottage, and weaving, hand embroidery, and lace-making are their recreations.

From official sources there are in Serbia, besides thousands of fugitives, some thousands of refugees from Bosnia and Herzegovina and other Slav provinces of Austria, especially many of the prisoners' families. Thousands of the families of Austrian prisoners in Serbia have fled from Austria into Serbia. The numbers of these refugees are stated as follows:

Belgrade (approximately).....	85,000
County of Belgrade.....	80,000
County of Podrinje.....	240,000
County of Valjevo.....	107,000
County of Ugizé.....	75,000
County of Rudnik.....	84,000

About 300,000 fugitives have returned to their homes, where they are in very great need owing to the destruction that has taken place, and the authorities have been obliged to forbid any more returning to their homes, owing to the impossibility of feeding and caring for them. This destitution increases every day, owing to the fact that in many parts of Serbia, not having such restriction, many have come to stay, so that whole districts are beginning to feel distress.

In times of peace the Serbian Coöperative Agricultural Association furnishes to farmers, at the lowest possible rates, live stock, seeds, and farm implements, and also introduces new vegetables. An excellent agricultural school is maintained at Kraljevo, and schools of viticulture at Smederov and Negotin. In a work on Serbia, written in 1910, by Herbert Vivian, there occurs this pleasant description of the home of a Serb peasant farmer:

His cottage is generally surmounted by a lofty wooden roof as high again as the building itself and tapering to so acute an angle that the rain has no chance of onset. There are generally two rooms,—a kitchen and a sleeping room where the whole family is herded together. The furniture consists mainly of a big oven, more than one-half filling the kitchen, an array of earthenware jars and cooking utensils ranged along the walls, a wooden table and some stools, all more or less rickety, and the beds, high, narrow, wooden construction covered up to look like cargoes of cushions in the day time.

In 1910 the output of grains, vegetables,

and fruits was given in the agricultural reports published by the government of Serbia as follows:

Maize .....	7,391,979	quintals
Wheat .....	3,470,289	"
Barley .....	877,223	"
Oats .....	629,100	"
Other cereals.....	387,979	"
Vegetables .....	1,520,194	"
Sugar beet.....	634,795	"
Tobacco .....	21,500	"
Flax and hemp.....	76,630	"

Fruits:	
Plums .....	270,820,018 kilos
Grapes .....	8,376,400 "
Apples .....	25,701,357 "
Pears .....	20,213,352 "
Other fruits.....	30,525,443 "

All offerings sent for the relief of Serbia will be forwarded direct to the country via Greece by the War-Relief Clearing-house for France and Her Allies. It is necessary that this agricultural aid should reach Serbia in April, in time for the spring planting.<sup>1</sup>

## ENGLISH CONSCRIPTION AND OUR CIVIL WAR DRAFT

IT is interesting to note that in the arguments now being brought forward in England to justify compulsory military service, or conscription, resort is frequently had to American experience during the Civil War. In the *London Spectator*, for example, attention has been directed to the attitude of President Lincoln on the subject of the draft. An editorial article in that journal declares that Lincoln went through all the stages that England is now going through in the matter of raising troops, except that the voluntary system in America gave results which numerically and in proportion to the population were below those which the voluntary system has given England in the first few months of the war.

Contrary to the general assumption that volunteering in Great Britain has not been as good as it was in the North before the draft was put in force, the *Spectator* declares that it has been very much better. It is assumed, however, that sooner or later the voluntary system will prove not to be giving as many men as are wanted and that recourse to compulsion will be necessary. In that event the *Spectator* holds that the government should make it quite clear to the nation that the excellent pay and allowances now given to England's soldiers cannot be extended to men taken into the ranks by compulsion. The man who comes forward voluntarily should have better terms than he who waits to be compelled. In the case of compulsion the service rendered will not be voluntary service, but will be in the nature of a tax which men are compelled to pay in the interests of the state. The first step of

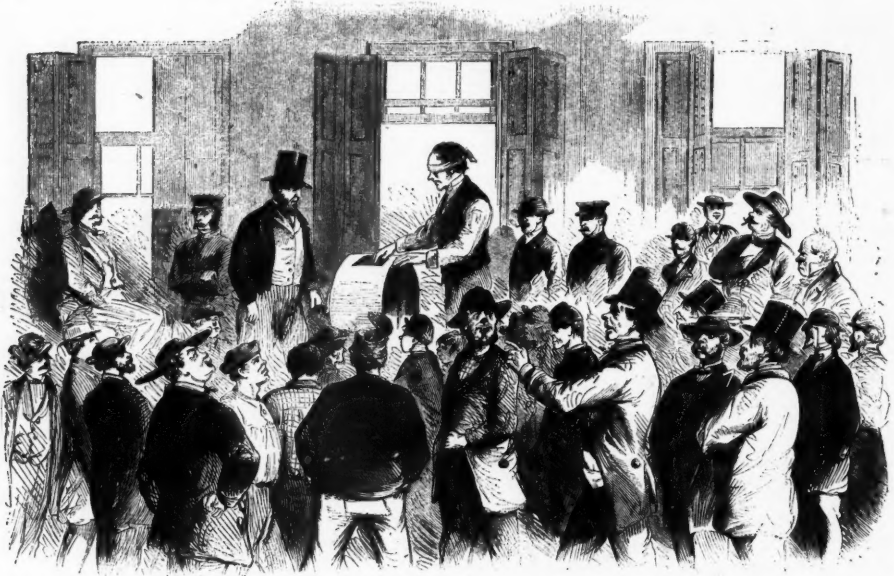
the government, in the *Spectator's* view, should be to draw up a muster roll. The exact number of men within the military age should be ascertained and they should be classified in every recruiting area in the country, or in such area as may be determined.

Having ascertained the number of men of military age in the country not employed (1) by the state; (2) in carrying out government contracts; (3) in transportation, the government should calculate how many more men in their opinion will be required. Let us, for the purpose of argument, say two million more. Then they should calculate what will be the quota required to be taken from every Parliamentary area,—i.e., constituency,—or such other area as may be determined upon. The next step will be to make an appeal in that area for men to supply its particular quota. If the quota is obtained voluntarily, well and good. If it is not, there must be a ballot amongst the men on the muster-roll,—the men of military age,—in order that the call of the government for so many men from such and such a place may be answered.

In this connection the *Spectator* refers to Lincoln's appeal to the country in support of the draft, which, because of circumstances, was not published at the time, and, in fact, was first given to the world in the authorized life of Lincoln by Nicolay and Hay. The *Spectator* characterizes Lincoln as "a liberal and a democrat and an upholder of popular rights if ever there was one in the world. Yet, strange as it may seem to our Radical friends, he was from the very beginning a strong advocate of compulsory service, or, as he called it, conscription, as the fairest and best way of raising troops for a great national emergency."

This appeal to the people in defense of the draft which Lincoln wrote at that critical juncture is pronounced by the *Spectator*

<sup>1</sup> Contributions are to be sent to the Serbian Agricultural Relief Commission, Bush Terminal, New York, freight prepaid.



HOW THE DRAFT WAS CONDUCTED IN 1863.—THE TURNING OF THE WHEEL IN THE PROVOST MARSHAL'S OFFICE, NEW YORK CITY

(From a war-time drawing in *Harper's Weekly*)

"one of the greatest state papers ever produced in the English language." Lincoln's refusal to publish the document was based, not on any lack of confidence in his argument, but on the fact that after the draft was put in operation it proved to be less unpopular than had been expected, and it was feared that the strength of the language used by Lincoln might possibly have irritated certain men who were rapidly becoming reconciled to the measure. Among the striking passages in Lincoln's address which have been marked by the *Spectator* as peculiarly applicable to the present situation in Great Britain are the following, which the editor commends to his English readers:

At the beginning of the war, and ever since, a variety of motives, pressing, some in one direction and some in the other, would be presented to the mind of each man physically fit for a soldier, upon the combined effect of which motives he would, or would not, voluntarily enter the service. Among these motives would be patriotism, political bias, ambition, personal courage, love of adventure, want of employment, and convenience, or the opposite of some of these. We already have, and have had, in the service as appears, substantially all that can be obtained upon this voluntary weighing of motives. And yet we must somehow obtain more, or relinquish the original object of the contest, together with all the blood and treasure already expended in the effort to secure it.

To meet this necessity the law for the draft has been enacted. You who do not wish to be soldiers do not like this law. This is natural; nor

does it imply want of patriotism. Nothing can be so just and necessary as to make us like it if it is disagreeable to us. We are prone, too, to find false arguments with which to excuse ourselves for opposing such disagreeable things. In this case, those who desire the rebellion to succeed, and others who seek reward in a different way, are very active in accommodating us with this class of arguments. . . . There can be no army without men. Men can be had only voluntarily or involuntarily. We have ceased to obtain them voluntarily, and to obtain them involuntarily is the draft,—the conscription. If you dispute the fact, and declare that men can still be had voluntarily in sufficient numbers, prove the assertion by yourselves volunteering in such numbers, and I shall gladly give up the draft. Or if not a sufficient number, but any one of you will volunteer, he for his single self will escape all the horrors of the draft, and will thereby do only what each one of at least a million of his manly brethren have already done. Their toil and blood have been given as much for you as for themselves. Shall it all be lost rather than that you, too, will bear your part?

I do not say that all who would avoid serving in the war are unpatriotic; but I do think every patriot should willingly take his chance under a law, made with great care, in order to secure entire fairness. . . . The principle of draft, which simply is involuntary or enforced service, is not new. It has been practised in all ages of the world. . . . Shall we shrink from the necessary means to maintain our free government, which our grandfathers employed to establish it and our own fathers have already employed once to maintain it? Are we degenerate? Has the manhood of our race run out? . . . With these views, and on these principles, I feel bound to tell you it is my purpose to see the draft law faithfully executed.



## A GERMAN'S VIEW OF RUMANIA'S INTEREST

**W**HAT disastrous consequences Rumania would suffer should she decide to join the side of the Allies, how Russia would use her as a cat's paw to further its own aggrandizement, and other pertinent points are interestingly discussed by Baron von Jettel in a recent issue of the *Deutsche Revue* (Berlin).

The convulsion that is shaking Europe to its foundations,—the writer begins,—spreads its waves far beyond its own hearthstone, causing even those countries to waver whose firm stand had been unquestioned. Rumania must, it seems, be reckoned among such unstable powers.

The present war makes high demands upon the wisdom of the statesmen who guide the fortunes of the countries not directly concerned in it. It is for them to decide whether they should join one of the belligerent parties or maintain a more or less friendly neutrality.

Since the Balkan War, in which Rumania intervened only at the moment of greatest confusion, so as to restore order and at the same time extend her dominions, she has played a leading rôle in all the Balkan problems. She had to decide whose influence, that of Austria or Russia, should predominate on the lower Danube, in the non-Slavic regions which form a natural barrier on the road to Constantinople. The writer shows how for centuries Rumania (formerly Moldavia and Wallachia) had been an object of political barter.

A new era began when Charles, a Hohenzollern, ascended the throne, three years after Rumania had been declared independent by the Congress of Berlin. For many years, while Macedonia was rent by factions, Rumania, under the lead of its wise ruler, was an element of order, which, supported by Germany and Austria, seemed destined to form a stout dam against the mighty onrush of the Pan-Slavist, or rather Pan-Russian, wave towards Constantinople and the straits.

After the Balkan War and the ensuing peace negotiations, a marked change was noticeable in Rumania's attitude to the European powers. Its starting-point was the alleged undue favor shown to Bulgaria. Although the Rumanian official documents conclusively disproved this, the opposing side exploited the situation to the utmost, and sought to undermine the ground under

Austria's and Germany's feet in Bucharest. France was especially zealous in that effort. For a long time the leading aristocratic families, who send their sons to Paris to study, have felt a warm sympathy for that country. French has been the language used in conversation by the ruling classes; four of the most widely read papers are published in that language. Wealthy Rumanians get their literature from Paris, the women their hats and gowns. In March, 1914, two prominent French journalists delivered well-attended lectures in Bucharest, when the term "Latin sister-nation" was strongly emphasized. Ten days later the Culture-League held a meeting at which the deplorable state of the Rumanians in Bukowina and Transylvania was pictured in appealing language, and the Rumanian youth urged to march to their rescue.

That the movement was promoted and exploited by France and Russia is not to be wondered at. A noted Russian publicist, Durnowo, writing to the Bucharest *Universul* in March, 1914, declared that the vital interest of Rumania demanded the union of all the Rumanians under one scepter; in a future war Russia would march alongside of Servia and Rumania. Count Ignatieff, in his recently published memoirs, writes that "the Austrian and Turkish Slavs must be our allies and the tools of our policy against Germanism; for the attainment of that object alone can Russia make sacrifices for them and endeavor to liberate and strengthen them."

In Bucharest Russian practises are, of course, well known, and extension of Russia's influence is jealously watched. Russia's recent marks of favor, the projected marriage of the Rumanian Crown Prince with a daughter of the Czar, the Czar's visit to Rumania, and so on, all demonstrate the value attached in St. Petersburg to winning over Rumania.

Warning voices have naturally been raised. The late great Rumanian statesman, Demeter Sturdza, in a pamphlet published last spring, observed: "We are threatened with a Russian invasion. Powerful efforts are being made to entice and deceive us. Gold is distributed to bribe the weak. Let us not be deceived by hypocritical promises, which will not be verified; feel as Rumanians should, not according to the wishes of aliens,

or else we shall disappear from the map of the world." And hear the President of the Rumanian Senate: "The Rumanian Government does not allow itself to be led by a press influenced by Russian gold. The entire rise of Rumania's commerce and industry is due solely to German and Austrian capital; from Russia Rumania has not received a farthing, nor can she expect anything from her." Nay, even Take Jonescu, the present leader of the Democrats and advocate of nationalism, writing to the *Romanul*, who declares that there is a natural antagonism between Russia and Rumania; that Russia is a country bent upon conquest, that Fate had interposed Rumania in its way, and that it could attain the object of its wishes only by marching over her dead body,—every consideration commanded her to fight advancing Russia.

Matters stood thus at the beginning of the war, at the outset between Austria and Serbia. Russia proceeded at once to continue her efforts to get Rumania and Bulgaria on her side.

What Russia is aiming at is revealed in an article by Professor Jastrebow in the *Birchewija Wjedomosti*: "the conquest of the Dardanelles, with Bulgaria and Rumania for a hinterland," and Giers, the Russian

Ambassador at Constantinople, is cited as the authority for that assertion.

For that matter, nothing can be clearer and more comprehensible than the traditional policy of Russia: Since she has in repeated wars been unable completely to demolish Turkey, the young Balkan States putting new obstructions, on the contrary, in the way of her plans, she contemplates shoving them aside by promises of outlying regions, so as to leave her path free. Thus Transylvania is held out as a bait to Rumania, Macedonia to Bulgaria, and Bosnia to Serbia. But even should the deluded ones succeed in attaining the Promised Land, they would have to pay dearly for that success. Politically, as well as economically, Russia would in future be their master and arbiter. Whatever they do now in the direction of weakening their friends will make them all the less able to escape this thralldom.

Russia, however, leads them, as the devil led the Master, to a high mountain and shows them all the realms of the world and says to them: "This power I shall give you and all this glory, for it is committed to me, and I give it at my will. If you will worship me it shall be yours." Will they say: "Get thee behind me, Satan"? This is Baron von Jettel's idea of the situation.

## THE VOICE OF INDIA

ABOUT 100,000 of India's sturdy soldiers are fighting in Europe for the defense of the British Empire. The princes and the people of India are lavishly supplying men and money to the British Government. The leaders of Indian thought have unconditionally supported the British in the present crisis. A few representative opinions have been published in the *Indian Review* (Madras) and the *Mahratta* (Poona).

Honorable Sir G. M. Chitnavis thus spoke in the Viceroy's Legislative Council:

Should any outside danger threaten India the people would stand shoulder to shoulder round England; her enemies would find Indians arrayed in a solid phalanx ready to close and reduce any danger and render any sacrifice for the sake of the Empire of which they are all proud citizens. The sentiment is based on gratitude for the past, on contentment in the present, on confidence for the future. . . . The maintenance of British rule is an essential condition of the material and moral progress of India.

Mr. V. P. Madhava Rao, the Prime Minister of the State of Baroda, expressed his opinion as follows:

India should be more interested than England herself in this war and the success of British arms. For if Britain is beaten in the war, it would mean the passing of India into the hands of some other power, and it would mean the utter ruin of all hopes and aspirations of India ever becoming a nation with any degree of self-government. Therefore, it behooves every well-wisher of the country to present a united front to the world and show them that Britain has at her back the support of every one of the various classes and communities over the length and breadth of this great continent.

Apart from the notable utterance of His Holiness the Agakhan, which has been quoted in all parts of the world, Honorable Mr. Muzrul Haque thus succinctly defined the position in this great international catastrophe:

There can be no doubt and no anxiety about our position as Indians. Our Motherland is at war with Germany and Austria, and it is our bounden duty to rally to a man and stand by the side of our Gracious Sovereign.

Even Balgangadhar Tilak, the arch nationalist of India, who has just been released after five years' imprisonment, has appealed to his

countrymen to sink all differences and unite in defense of the Empire. He says:

It has been well said that British rule is conferring inestimable benefit on India, not only by its civilized methods of administration, but also thereby bringing together the different nationalities and races of India, so that a united nation may grow out of it in course of time. I do not believe that if we had any other ruler except the liberty-loving British they would have conceived and assisted us in developing such a national ideal. Everyone who has the interests of India at heart is fully alive to this and similar advantages of the British rule. . . . England has been compelled by the action of the German Emperor to take up arms in defense of a weaker state, whose frontiers have been violated in defiance of several treaty obligations and of repeated promises of integrity. At such a crisis it is, I firmly hold, the duty of every Indian, be he great or small, rich or poor, to support and assist His Majesty's Government to the best of his ability.

Although Great Britain is loyally supported by India in the present crisis, the causes of unrest and friction have not all disappeared. Not only the Hindu revolutionaries, but even some of the progressive Englishmen, feel the need of a radical change in the feeling between the East and the West, especially between India and England. In a stimulating article in the *New Statesman* (London) Mr. "One-Who-Knows-India," evidently an Englishman, points out the path of India's true loyalty to England:

It is obvious that Asia cannot remain forever contented with the position of subordination which it at present occupies. The Russo-Japanese war stirred Asia to its depths, and this war is going to stir it still further. Japan and China are apparently going to play a part in the coming events; and, though the voice of discontent, and what is called sedition, has for the time been hushed in India, that country is very far from being satisfied with the condition of things that prevails within its boundaries, or with the treatment that it receives from the British Government. Everyone who has watched events in India knows that there is a great deal of real discontent there, and unless the British handle the situation in a spirit of liberal statesmanship, and make large political concessions, the situation might easily and rapidly grow grave. The news from India indicates that she is prepared to stand by the Empire wholeheartedly in the crisis.

There is no fear of any complications arising. But this does not justify our concluding that India forgets her grievances against the English Government. What the present attitude of the Indians establishes is that they will stand by the Empire in any quarrel that England may have with other European powers. The only other European powers with ambitions towards India are Russia and Germany. Russia the Indians hate, and for Germany they have no love. What the Indians aspire to is political independence,—not an exchange of masters.

There can be no durable peace in the world unless the civilized West puts into practise its

profession of liberty, humanity, and fraternity, not only in Europe, but throughout the whole world. It may be that the different parts of the world require different treatment, but the object should be to put an end everywhere, not only to military, but also to political despotism, and to give relief to all who suffer therefrom. . . . Asia ought to be made to feel that her legitimate aspirations will not be ignored, and that the relation between Europe and Asia shall in future be those of sisters engaged in common service of humanity, and not those of exploiters and exploited. . . .

The offers by native chiefs of India do not mean very much. Most of them, as we know, are entirely in the hands of their British residents and are actuated by motives not identical with wholehearted loyalty to the British.

Now, the best and the most effective way to win the genuine and permanent loyalty of India would be to remove the galling bonds that remind her sons every moment of their lives that they are the subjects of an alien government, and that they have no status in the empire to which they are expected to be loyal. What we have to do is, by one bold stroke, to convert the loyalty of impotence or of fear into the loyalty of heart.

And again, in the *Prabudha Zharat*, published at Mayabati, in the Himalayas, we find an article by an anonymous writer that seems to subtly defend the German principles of militarism. Says the writer:

If Germany declares her ambition of world empire to be legitimate, European politics cannot help admitting it. Neither does it behoove England, who has realized that ambition herself, to deny Germany the right of cherishing it. The argument sometimes put forward that the German system of internal government disqualifies her from an attempt to build up a world empire is quite flimsy. It has yet to be proved that democracy is the highest form of government, and German culture and civilization in peace are not inferior to any as yet reached by any European nation. Brutalities committed under the exceptional circumstances of war can hardly discredit them. So on what grounds will European politics, sitting in impartial judgment on Germany, condemn her political ambition? . . . Expansion is the watchword of political life in Europe, and if England proposes to-day to others to have that spirit in them arrested for the sake of peace, the latter may well chuckle on the sly at what they would call either England's selfish craftiness or her satiety. . . .

The real truth is that European politics by its very nature constitutes a perpetual menace to peace. Visions of peace, therefore, are but the idlest dream for these nations that have politics for the foundation of their life and greatness. By the very trend of its civilization Europe is debarred from finding proper means even to minimize the chances of war, and nothing short of a stupendous miracle is necessary effectively to modify its trend.

Certain Hindu writers whose outgivings have been permitted to see the light in America and Germany have been even more outspoken in their expressions of sympathy with the German cause.

## A SOCIALIST FORECAST OF LASTING PEACE

IN *Die Neue Zeit*, Karl Kautsky, the German Socialist leader, brings to a close a series of articles dealing with the practises of war in past times, and in the present conflict. In conclusion, he gives his view of the possible effect upon opinion and upon national policies of the unparalleled devastation and slaughter now going on, and indicates the grounds for his hope that it may be followed by the establishment of permanent peace:

The warfare of to-day brings to a culminating point all the horrors of the strategy of wholesale destruction, spread over an enormously increased area. If the armies of Napoleon were ten times greater than those of Wallenstein and Gustavus Adolphus, the armies of to-day are ten times greater than those of Napoleon. But we have, in addition, all the devastation and hardships of the strategy of exhaustion, crowded into the least possible space of time, without any pause whatever for breath or recuperation.

And all the powers of modern technique are placed at the service of destruction. Human ingenuity achieves gruesome triumphs in that line.

\* \* \*

We have seen how the development of the last decades had nurtured the military spirit in the people, prepared them for the practises of war. We see now how the war itself assumes forms which demand even greater sacrifices than in the time of Napoleon and Clausewitz, stir up passions perhaps even more deeply, make leniency to the enemy more impossible than ever.

Is it not to be feared that ruder standards of conduct will be retained in peace, too, and will react upon the forms of life where the contrasts of normal social life are found?

That there is such a possibility cannot be denied. But we need not as yet regard it as a necessary consequence, for the opposite tendencies, which were operative before the war, are by no means suppressed. In the bourgeoisie, it is true, they have been partially weakened by the development of recent decades. But it has not fully overcome the influences of the last centuries, and international, scientific, and economic intercourse has attained such wide expansion and become so indispensable, that nothing less than the stress and passion of war can interrupt it, and that only for a time. This intercourse necessitates, of course, international personal relations, which must exert a mildening effect upon the feelings and manners bred by war.

Far more important, however, is the strengthening of the proletariat, whose love of peace, international solidarity, and consideration for human life have precisely in the last decades become steadily more pronounced and have formed a powerful dam against any brutalizing influences.

\* \* \*

We see, therefore, powerful humanizing tendencies at work, simultaneously with those of the opposite character. Accordingly, a sharp dis-

cordance may be observed in the war practises of our time as well. There have been times when the horrors and barbarities of war were inflicted by the belligerents without a particle of scruple or hesitation; when, indeed, the knowledge of them was purposely disseminated as a means of terrifying the enemy and breaking his power of resistance. The present war is one which is, indeed, conducted on the plan of wholesale destruction, but in which every act of inhumanity is, nevertheless, looked upon as a disagreeable duty,—except on the part of a few intellectuals who succeed in finding amusement in the most harrowing agonies of death. No man of feeling could bring himself to indulge in a witticism at the execution of even the most depraved criminal. One of the blood-thirstiest esthetes of *Simplicissimus*, Herr Edgar Steiger, breaks into a merry laugh over the agonized death-struggle of 150,000 Russians in the Mazurian swamps. But that is not the spirit of those engaged in the war. The reproach of having committed atrocities they consider as a slander which they repel.

To be sure, the horrors of war, if frequently repeated, may ultimately dull the feelings inculcated in peace. But it is just as possible that they may have the reverse effect,—strengthen those feelings, and arouse a vivid longing for a peace which shall endure and lull the war spirit to sleep once more.

Should the war end in a peace signify only a truce, new armaments, feverish preparation for a new war, then, of course, it would contribute nothing towards the diminution of antagonisms and passions, and of the impulses towards the most merciless practises. But for the present we have no reason to suppose such a peace even possible.

We may expect that a few months of this war will suffice to give rise to as strong a feeling of the need of a lasting peace as did the twenty years of war a hundred years ago. Perhaps it will, as that war was, be brought to a close by an international congress. The combatants already number nearly a dozen; an assemblage of them alone, to conclude peace, would constitute an international congress. It would this time want to apportion not Europe but rather the world. The neutrals, too, would demand admission to it. Governments are not as independent of the people of a country as they were a hundred years ago. They could not simply ignore their wishes. Under these circumstances, it is possible that this congress, supported by the general longing for peace, would consummate a work at least as enduring as that of the Congress of Vienna.

But a fifty years' peace is bound to become a permanent, an everlasting peace. For in that stretch of time the proletariat will beyond doubt have advanced to the point where it will have arranged the world according to its needs. And among those needs are reckoned international solidarity and a policy which secures lasting peace among nations. The ideal of so many thinkers of the last three hundred years will then be realized, not as an ethical postulate but as an actual necessity of a definite social order. Every system of exploitation will disappear.



## A FAMOUS PASTORAL LETTER

ONE of the great documents of the war is the Christmas pastoral letter of Cardinal Mercier, Archbishop of Malines, entitled "Patriotism and Endurance." The English translation of this letter has been reproduced in full by the *New York Times* (January 22). The letter begins with a reference to the Cardinal's journey to Rome occasioned by the death of Pope Pius X and the election of his successor, and speaks of the destruction and desolation that overtook large portions of Belgium during the Cardinal's absence,—particularly the serious injury to the Cathedral church of Louvain, the burning of the University, "the wholesale shooting of citizens and tortures inflicted upon women and children and upon unarmed and undefended men"; the bombardment of the churches and the Cardinal's palace in Malines,—and he summons his people to turn from this record of disaster to face the duty of the hour, which he sums up in two words; patriotism and endurance. For the Belgian Army he has only words of gratitude and praise, and for the 250,000 soldiers still fighting in defense of the Fatherland, as well as for those who have fallen, he asks the prayers of the faithful.

Lest any hasty reader of his letter should assume that this revered Belgian prelate is speaking from superficial or second-hand knowledge of the facts, he takes the trouble to particularize, giving the names and addresses of priests whom he personally knew to have been put to death by German soldiers. There were thirteen such priests in his own diocese, and, "to my own actual, personal knowledge, more than thirty in the dioceses of Namur, Tournai, and Liège."

In spite of this story of

calamity, the Cardinal exclaims in the ardor of his faith:

God will save Belgium, my brethren, you cannot doubt it.

Nay, rather, he is saving her.

Across the smoke of conflagration, across the stream of blood, have you not glimpses, do you not perceive, signs of His love for us? Is there a patriot among us who does not know that Belgium has grown great? Now, which of us would have the heart to cancel this last page of our national history? Which of us does not exult in the brightness of the glory of this shattered nation? When in her throes she brings forth heroes, our mother country gives her own energy to the blood of these sons of hers.



CARDINAL MERCIER, ARCHBISHOP OF MALINES

(Cardinal Mercier was born in 1851, only a few miles from the battlefield of Waterloo. He had a distinguished academic career at the University of Louvain and became president of the Belgian Royal Academy of Sciences, Letters, and Fine Arts. He was appointed Archbishop in 1906 and created a Cardinal in 1907. This portrait is reproduced from a photograph given by Cardinal Mercier to the Rev. J. F. Stillemans, president of the Belgian Relief Bureau, New York City.)

Then follows a justification of obedience to patriotism as a Christian duty, which, in some of its passages, rises to heights of genuine eloquence. To the suggestion offered by certain citizens of neutral states that Belgium might have saved herself so great a loss of wealth and of life, and that a single cannon-shot on the frontier would have served the purpose of protest, the Cardinal indignantly replies: "Assuredly all men of good feeling will be with us in our rejection of these paltry counsels. Mere utilitarianism is no sufficient rule of Christian citizenship." He continues:

The laws of conscience are sovereign laws. We should have acted unworthily had we evaded our obligation by a mere feint of resistance. And now we would not rescind our first resolution; we exult in it. Being called upon to write a most solemn page in the history of our country, we resolved that it should be also a sincere, also a glorious page. And as long as we are required to give proof of endurance, so long we shall endure.

In the invasion of his country by Germany this outspoken and courageous priest refuses to instruct his people to renounce a single one of their national obligations as citizens. "On the contrary, I hold it as part of the obligation of my Episcopal office to instruct you as to your duty in face of the power that has invaded our soil and now occupies the greater part of our country. The authority of that power is no lawful authority, therefore, in soul and conscience, you owe it neither respect, nor attachment, nor obedience."

A report made by German officials to the Pope stated that 15,000 copies of the pastoral letter were seized in Malines and destroyed, the printer being fined; that the Cardinal was detained in his palace during all of January 4; that he was prevented by German officers on January 3 from presiding at a religious ceremony; that they subjected him to interrogations and demanded of him a retraction, which he refused to make.

## A GREAT BELGIAN,—ERNEST SOLVAY

IT was with painful emotions that the world of science learned that Ernest Solvay, the great Belgian philanthropist and scientist, had been taken as a war hostage, by the German Governor of Brussels. This is the same Solvay who has contributed so much to the progress of science in Germany, as he has also contributed to its progress in other countries. But Germany came in for a larger share of his bounty through the application of his impartial methods, by the very fact that there is a greater number of people engaged in the study of physics in Germany than elsewhere.

The great Dutch physicist, H. A. Lorentz, contributes to the *Revue du Mois*, of Paris, an article devoted to Ernest Solvay, in which he expresses the highest respect for him and the keenest appreciation for his work. He says in part:

Ernest Solvay has created, through his talents and his perseverance, one of the greatest and most flourishing industries of the world. In Belgium, France, Germany, Russia, England, and the United States, the production of sodium, based on his formula, furnishes work to thousands of people. The fortune which he accumulated during a half century of activity has been to Ernest Solvay only a means to an end: the development of scientific research and helping the cause of humanity. Those who have visited Brussels are familiar with the Institute of Physiology, the School of Commerce, and the Institute of Sociology, which were

all founded by Solvay. Not content with this, the great Belgian undertook to make a reality an idea which Nernst, of Berlin, had conceived. With that end in view, he invited a number of scientists from various countries to a conference, to discuss questions relating to modern physics.

After the conference, which took place in 1911, and of which Professor Lorentz was made chairman, Solvay proposed to create an international institute of physics and endowed it with 1,000,000 francs. Professor Lorentz continues:

Professor Heger, of Brussels, and myself were entrusted with the task of drawing up the statutes of the new foundation. Solvay gave us almost absolute freedom of action. He confined his instructions to the mere statement that after a certain sum had been reserved, in the interest of scientific pursuits in his own country, the rest was to be divided with strict impartiality among all other nationalities. This institution has been in existence two years.

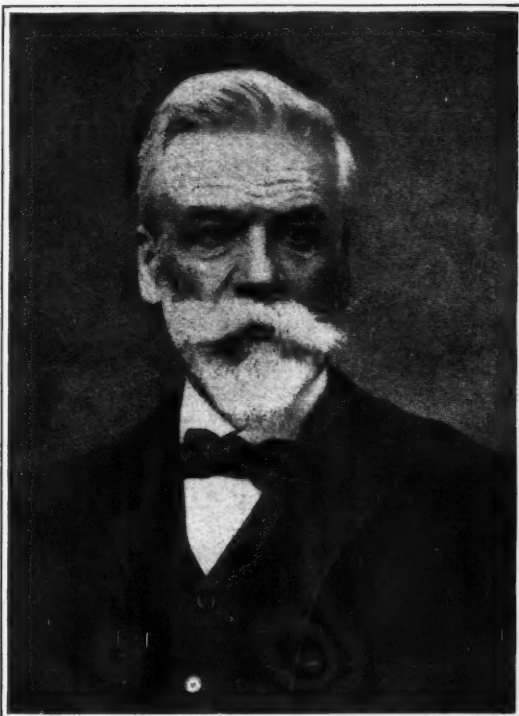
In 1913 another scientific convention took place, and again considerable sums of money were placed at the disposal of the chemists and physicists of the world. The distribution of the money was entrusted to the International Scientists' Committee, in which Belgium, France, Germany, England, Denmark, and the Netherlands were represented. Needless to say, the committee adhered strictly, in apportioning the money, to the principles of impartiality upon which Solvay insists. He also created another international institute as a branch of the first, on the same general principles, and endowed it likewise with 1,000,000 francs.

Ernest Solvay [continues Professor Lorentz] is a great philanthropist as well as a great scientist. Shortly after the foundation of the institute he gave 1,000,000 francs for the betterment of the working classes of Belgium. It was primarily their education and enlightenment which he had in view. Besides all this, the University of Brussels, which is independent of the state, owes much to Solvay's great generosity.

Professor Lorentz concludes with the following words:

I hope that the misfortunes that have fallen upon M. Solvay and the people whom he represents so worthily will not prevent him from continuing his work for the advance of science and civilization. It is a work to which he seems especially called.

Ernest Solvay is seventy-six years of age. His father was a small manufacturer of salt, and in 1861 the son obtained the Belgian patent for a process of manufacturing soda, or sodium bicarbonate, by the action of ammonium bicarbonate upon brine. Most of the soda of commerce is now made by this process. On the fiftieth jubilee of the ammonia-soda process King Albert named M. Solvay Grand Officer of the Order of Leopold.



ERNEST SOLVAY, THE BELGIAN SCIENTIST AND PHILANTHROPIST: A HOSTAGE TO GERMANY

## WORLD MISSIONS IN THE WAR CRISIS

SIXTY-FIVE of the 176 pages of the latest *International Review of Missions* (Edinburgh) are devoted to a survey of missionary progress during 1914. In Japan social unrest is leading to introspection, repentance, and the study of the Bible by many prominent men; a Christian university is being hopelessly agitated for; Japan's appreciative Emperor has donated \$50,000 to St. Luke's missionary hospital. The recent official revival of Confucianism in China is awakening a wide interest in religion, a proof of which is the systematic and guided study of the New Testament by more than 18,000 of the 150,000 who attended the evangelistic meetings of Sherwood Eddy; and the Roman Catholics report 100,000 additions to the Church. India's social conscience is awakening to new social reforms; a woman's missionary college is being started by ten coöperating missions; increasing mass movements will revolutionize India, is the prediction of Sir Harnam Singh, Moderator of the Gen-

eral Assembly of seven Presbyterian bodies. Ceylon is stirred by Buddhist zeal evoked by Christian missions, while a native Christian missionary society is beginning a vigorous career. In Central Africa, Daudi has been crowned first Christian King of Uganda, forty years after Stanley's appeal to England to evangelize its people. In Siam Christianity has been given equal rights with Buddhism, the state religion. Java reports 24,000 Moslem converts in Christian churches.

Missionary periodicals are full of the war. The February *Missionary Review of the World* (New York) presents a German view through Missions-Inspektor Schlunk, who reports that mobilization has called candidates from mission seminaries and has transferred Togoland and South China missionaries to the firing-line in those countries. Funds are raised with difficulty and transmitted but seldom and uncertainly. Yet the religious wave occasioned by the war is helpful to German Missions.

Basil Mathews voices the hopeful note of British Missions derivable from the Revolutionary and Napoleonic era, when their greatest societies were founded, and from the Crimean and China wars, when they made notable advances;—a hope fortified by continued contributions and unflagging missionary interest. Britain and Germany alike lean upon Dr. Mott, an American neutral, who, Mr. Mathews says, is "one of the greatest reconciling personalities in the world to-day. British and Germans may not talk to one another through the smoke of war, but we can talk with Dr. John R. Mott." Professor Cramb's dictum, "Corsica has conquered Galilee," he thus comments upon: "Corsica may have momentarily eclipsed Galilee, but Corsica ended in St. Helena, while Galilee, after the dark hour of Crucifixion, blazed into the immortal glory of Resurrection and the conquering progress of the enduring dominion of Christ."

The Anglican missionary quarterly, *The East and the West* (London) for October last begins with two articles, one describing the history and possibilities of the Anglican bishopric in Jerusalem, the other pleading for an adequate negro and European ministry for English and Bantu peoples of South Africa. The Rev. A. C. Moule tells the story of failing Nestorian and Roman Catholic Missions in China, from 635 A.D. onward, giving nine reasons for their failure. C. F. Andrews, who has endeared himself to Indians through advocating their cause in South Africa and at home, and who is now working with India's poet laureate, Rabindranath Tagore, though still a missionary, argues for the incorporation of race factors into the Indian Church and for the implied interracial fellowship of all Christians there. The study of missionary history as to values and methods and the part played by negro agents in Uganda's Christianization are two illuminating articles for students and missionary administrators, respectively. Mr. Horsburgh voices the objections of plain men to missions and partly acknowledges their validity and in part shows their falsity. Archdeacon Farquhar, a negro Churchman sent by his West Indian fellow countrymen to Africa, discriminatingly explains the negro's differing status and problems in South Africa, in the West Indies, and in the United States, and asks the Church to solve the color problem ecclesiastically and in righteousness.

The January issue of *The East and the West* contains two articles on the war and missions. In the second of these the British

Empire and Germany are contrasted as to the ethical principles underlying war and their relation to non-Christian races. Professor Cramb, Nietzsche and Treitschke are quoted as disregarding of the rights of the weak, and the verdict of Confucianist, Buddhist, and Moslem is said to be opposed to the German doctrine and practise. Hindu India stands loyally by Britain's rule and spirit, and dark Africa is fighting under her banners. Meanwhile it seems probable that other territories than Egypt, through its Sudan, will come into her possession. New and increased missionary responsibilities will thus result from the present conflict.

Last January saw the launching of the most sumptuous and popular of missionary periodicals, *World Outlook* (New York), the organ of the Methodist Episcopal Board of Foreign Missions, but catholic enough to appeal to men of all faiths. Its format resembles that of *Country Life in America*. It is emphatically an outlook and not a world review, scrutinizing the forces of civilization that are sweeping over twilight countries and opening its pages to discussions of world-wide significance in which men of varying creeds participate. That of the initial number is a symposium entitled "Is World Federation Practicable?" in which seventeen eminent men share—Andrew Carnegie, Oscar Straus, Josiah Strong, Secretary Daniels, President Jordan, Dr. Jefferson, Rabbi Wise, and others equally prominent.

Africa is the leading theme of the first issue, with North Africa of the future, Ethiopia on wheels, Europe-owned Africa, the making of the new womanhood of North Africa and what the editor-in-chief saw there, as prominent sub-topics. Mr. Crowther's African railway article is particularly striking. If the initial pace can be maintained and denominationalism is subordinated, *World Outlook* will be on the newsstands and Missions will become a theme of the street.

How many-handed and how whole-hearted the missionary enterprise is one sees illustrated in the February *Spirit of Missions* (New York), which happens to be a children's number. Hearts and pockets are reached by Dr. Jefferys' tales from a Shanghai hospital. Principal Tamura's story of Mrs. Miyoshi, a homemaker of Japan, is in quaint English which makes the life attractive. Ezra Everett's "Sailor Jack" depicts the temptations and difficulties of men for whom are erected Seamen's Institutes, one of which is half-toned for us.

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## THE DISAPPEARANCE OF FRENCH LITERATURE

LITERATURE being a luxury, it naturally is the first to suffer from the social disorganization brought about by war. In all belligerent countries there is a marked slump in the literary output. Even in efficient Germany the tremendous yearly production of novels, dramas, and other forms of art has been greatly diminished, though the volume of war literature is large enough to fill the gap thus created.

In England the situation is more normal. The novelists continue to write novels, the theaters continue to produce plays, and the magazines appear regularly, un-reduced in size.

In France, however, literary activity has ceased almost entirely. Many of the French writers are fighting in the trenches. Twenty of them have already been killed and more than thirty wounded. Those remaining at home can find no publishers to bring out their works because the public would not buy them. In an article in *Poetry and Drama* Remy de Gourmont gives the following account of the literary ravages the war has caused in France:

In a day the war suppressed all the means by which men of letters ordinarily derived an income from their art. The greater part of the reviews have ceased to appear, or are published only in a much smaller form; even the daily papers have suspended all literary and pictorial contributions. It is hardly necessary to say that the publication of books has undergone the same fate. They all stopped short at the moment when the order for general mobilization was received. In the complex labor necessary to the material production of a book, the slightest disorganization of one of the parts stops the work. But on this occasion all were attacked progressively, and a total paralysis was the result.

Moreover, what was the use of publishing books even if it had been physically possible? There was nobody to buy them, and hardly anybody to read them. It would have been making a present to the public which the public would not have noticed. The newest and most passionate book of the day before mobilization did not exist on the day after.

When I returned to Paris at the beginning of October, committees of relief had been organized for writers, and the *Société des Gens de Lettres* had instituted free dinners for its members. It is apparent how rapidly distress had broken out when such extreme measures had to be resorted to. The writers could not write, the printers could not print, the readers could not buy and read. The literary organism slept. It is still sleeping, and no one knows when it will awaken.

Like the other belligerent countries, how-

ever, France is beginning to have a war literature on a small scale. The military publishers, Berger-Levrault, have begun the publication of a periodical album with high-class war pictures. They are also planning the publication of a review of the war, not put up in a journalistic hurry, but carefully treated by writers of distinguished scholarship. Other publishers are planning similar undertakings, and even the issue of books. But so far as the books are concerned, it is still merely a hope. The only books published to date, says Remy de Gourmont, are a few military pamphlets and a reprint of a short, fantastic military novel, which has not met with much success.

The reality is so overwhelming that the French reading public does not seem to be interested in imaginary descriptions of war. They are satisfied with the official *communiqués* from day to day, with the accounts of apparently monotonous movements of vast bodies of men, which, however prosaic they may seem in the dry military reports, fire the lively imagination of the Frenchmen with their tremendous import. Nevertheless, the Frenchmen have not lost their taste for reading. The public libraries, especially in Paris, find the same demand for their books now as before the war. Allowing for the decrease in the population of Paris, this would indicate a greater interest in reading than in ante-war times.

The man who loves reading [Gourmont goes on to say] does not give it up willingly, and it is precisely during the hardest times that he feels the most need of books. The book-buyer who was thought to have vanished has reappeared, and since there are no new books he asks for last season's, even for last year's. This is another symptom of the revival of literature. Perhaps even when the enemy is driven from France, a few new books may be published.

To explain this, it should be borne in mind that Paris, to which many rich people returned during the month of October, is totally deprived of amusements. There are no exhibitions, no social gatherings, no horse races, no theaters. Everyone feels the necessity for amusement, and everyone chooses what is perhaps the most speculative for a man of the world, but the most secret and most discreet,—reading. In certain circles they are beginning to think that it was a mistake to close all the theaters. A number of actors and supers are on the streets, and they are the less resigned to their fate because of the Winter, which makes their hardships all the more distressing. Little by little the drama will re-occupy a small niche in the social world without the theaters being actually opened. They will not

play dramas, but they will recite poetry and read pages of good prose.

In conclusion Gourmont indulges in a bit of somewhat timid speculation as to the future:

What will the theater of tomorrow be and what the literature? If we knew, it would be deprived of much of its interest; for all literary work, even the most serious, derives part of its value from the quality of novelty. It is always disappointing to find things happen exactly at the hour and exactly in the manner foretold. Genius loves surprises.

We shall be surprised if genius has anything to do with the war. But will it? Shells and bullets also love surprises.

A young officer, himself a writer, with whom I was discussing this question the other day on his return from the fifteenth battle during one month, said to me, "If the new literature is sincere, it will be cynical like war itself. Those who have passed through it will have no illusions. They will know human nature through and through." He talked to me for a long time in this way, and even more bitterly. But he, perhaps, is an exception. Nothing changes a man's temperament. Each will feel the war according to his nature, and that will be a very excellent thing.

## REGULATION OF PUBLIC UTILITIES

LAST November a noteworthy conference of American mayors was held in Philadelphia for the discussion of the gigantic problem of public-utility control or regulation. The proceedings of that conference have now been published as Volume LVII of *The Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, with the title: "Public Policies as to Municipal Utilities." Perhaps a happier title and one less indicative of confusion of thought as well as less conducive to confusion of counsel would have been "Municipal Policies as to Public Utilities,"—since "the man in the street" is only beginning to understand that by the term "public utility" is meant the providing of some sort of public service in any one of such necessities of the modern American community as water supply, gas, electricity for light and power, the telephone, the street railway, and so on; and since not one public utility in a hundred in the United States, at least, can truthfully be called a "municipal utility." However, under whatever group-title, the symposium of papers, addresses, and remarks thus published constitutes a highly interesting and valuable contribution to the consideration of a vitally important subject.

Among more than a score of able papers, one by Dr. Edward W. Bemis, a member of the Advisory Board, Valuation Department, Interstate Commerce Commission, on "Some Present-Day Issues of Public Utility Regulation," is notable for its comprehensive grasp of the whole question. Sketching in rapid review the significant developments of the last decade, Dr. Bemis points out that whereas ten years ago Massachusetts was the only State that had a commission empowered to deal with public utilities, today twenty-six States and the District of Columbia have such commissions, and in

many other States the utilities themselves are seeking to have commissions created. He finds that "the tendency of a few years ago toward home rule in the regulation of these monopolies has been temporarily checked. Municipal ownership, also, for a time, seemed to be sidetracked," although of late certain developments "indicate that State regulation is not found to be as popular as was generally expected."

Meantime [he continues], the growth of these utilities has been remarkable. The sale of artificial gas has more than doubled in the last ten years. The sale of electric light and power was over four times as much in 1912 as in 1902. The number of passengers carried by street railways more than doubled in the same ten years, while the estimated number of telephone messages was nearly three times as large in 1912 as in 1902. State commission regulation is now with us in most States. It can give us publicity and uniformity of accounts, tests of service, and many other benefits. We accept it where in vogue, and in this paper we consider how to meet some of the problems involved.

These problems Dr. Bemis considers under eight separate classifications:

(I.) The failure of cities to realize that commissions tend to assume the attitude of courts, and to be influenced by the relative weight of evidence, rather than to become independent investigating bodies. (II.) The personnel of these commissions is of the greatest importance. (III.) The methods of determining the amount of property on which a reasonable return should be earned cannot be too carefully studied by all lovers of fair play. (IV.) Going value, reserves, and surplus earnings present big problems. (V.) The apportionment of rates between various classes of electric consumers should not always be according to cost of service. (VI.) The virtual if not legal validation of all our watered securities under the guise of state approval of new securities is another serious menace. (VII.) The relation of regulation to municipal ownership. Commission regulation must be divorced from interference with the charges and administration of municipal plants, ex-

cept in the requirement of publicity and uniformity of accounts. (VIII.) Syndicates of capital must be met with syndicates of cities.

In point of novelty, at least, the last topic in Dr. Bemis's list was his most important; and the conference of mayors voted to establish a "Utilities Bureau" as a nation-wide intercity agency for bringing the combined ability and experience of all our cities to the service of each city which may face a public-utility problem.

Another paper which aroused much interest at the conference was that by Stiles P. Jones, secretary of the Voters' League of Minneapolis, on "What Certain Cities Have Accomplished Without State Regulation." Mr. Jones, an unconditional and thorough-going advocate of municipal ownership and operation of all public utilities, while admitting that State regulating commissions have done some good, maintains that "it is in the cities that have worked out their own salvation that the largest degree of success in rates and service has been achieved." Holding that municipal ownership is the only possible solution of the problem, he says:

Vesting in the State the regulation of the cities' utilities seems to me nothing less than a weak and cowardly dodging of plain civic duty and responsibility. The effect must inevitably be the same

upon the community as on the individual,—the loss of will and purpose and capacity to do other things. Municipal ownership has not come to our cities, and will not, through the route of State regulation, no matter how efficient in the public interests that regulation may be. In fact, the greater the efficiency the more distant the final day of public ownership. Municipal ownership is coming rather through the trials and experiences of a city wrestling bravely with its own problems, working them out in its own way, be it good or bad for the time being, and fitting itself, through that experience, for the final step,—the step which will end the long night of conscienceless exploitation of the most valuable resources of our cities and the debauching of their public life to make private profits.

As a review of some of "the larger achievements of the cities," he then presents in rosette terms the accomplishments of Minneapolis in compelling a low gas rate and a greatly improved street-railway service; of Indianapolis, in forcing the lowest gas rate in the country; of Seattle, in reducing electric rates by building a municipal plant; of Winnipeg, in like fashion; of Kansas City and Pasadena, in the same field; of Detroit, Cleveland, and Toledo, in victories over their "street railway monopolies," and of San Francisco, in building a municipal street railway giving access to the exposition grounds and in "meeting its water problem with equal vigor."

## TEACHER-MOTHERS IN NEW YORK SCHOOLS

A MARRIED woman employed as a teacher in one of the public schools of New York City was absent from the school for the purpose of bearing a child and was dismissed by the Board of Education on the charge of neglect of duty. Her case was appealed to the State Commissioner of Education, Dr. John H. Finley, who has revoked the decision of the board and ordered the reinstatement of the teacher. His reasons for this action are summarized in *School and Society* for January 16.

Commissioner Finley's findings are of interest to teachers and school officers throughout the country, since they deal with a situation that may arise in the school administration of any State. In the State of New York and under the rules and practise of the Board of Education of New York City, married women teachers may be and are employed. Under a decision of the Court of Appeals a woman teacher may not be dis-

missed on account of marriage after entering the service. The question presented to Commissioner Finley was: "May the board dismiss a married woman teacher for that which is the lawful, natural consequence of marriage and its social sanction?"

This is the Commissioner's answer as communicated to the Board of Education:

Without undertaking to determine or to define here the limits of the board's discretion (and it is and has been the general policy of this Department to assure the widest discretion practicable) and without discussing here the advantages and disadvantages of the policy of employing married teachers or estimating their relative efficiency (since such rehearsal would not touch directly the matter at issue) I present the conclusion to which I am compelled after a careful and thorough examination of all the papers in the case: That the board should have accepted the natural corollary of its policy, voluntary or enforced, of employing or retaining married women teachers, and should have given at least as favorable consideration to an absence for childbirth as is normally given to absences asked for rea-

sons of personal convenience, of minor or grave illness, or for purposes of study and travel or of improving health.

Home duties should doubtless, in some cases, suggest to the teacher her withdrawal from the school after maternity. Dismissal for "general inefficiency" would be warranted if upon return a teacher was found to be unable after trial to perform school duties. But it is difficult to conceive how a reasonable, unwillful absence, due to a natural unavoidable cause, could be construed as neglect of duty; and it is difficult to understand why an absence for the most highly creditable social reason should be so treated.

As Commissioner I would give every possible aid in my power to promote devotion to duty, zealous service, and efficiency on the part of the teachers of the State, to prevent neglect of duty and inefficiency and to eliminate incompetence;

and I attribute only such high purposes to the board of education in its action in this case. But I am of the clear opinion, which I am obliged to follow, that these ends and purposes will not be served by selecting, or seeming to select, for stigma or reproach such a reason for temporary absence from school duty as is offered in this case, or inferring, or seeming to infer, inefficiency from the mere fact of motherhood.

If, as this Honorable Board appears to hold, married women teachers should *ipso facto* end their service upon maternity, this policy (which I cannot believe sound in principle or wholesome in practise) can be made possible only through legislation making it lawful to discharge, because of marriage, a teacher in service. Meanwhile it is the duty of the board to adopt a practise in accord with the clear intent of existing law and in harmony with this decision.

## A NEW MUSICAL PERIODICAL

A NEW musical magazine has just made its appearance. It is called the *Musical Quarterly*. Published by G. Schirmer (New York and London), its editor is Oscar G. Sonneck, who is probably better known to writers on music and students of the history of the art than to the general public. Mr. Sonneck is chief of the Music Division of the Library of Congress, where, since 1902, he has built up one of the finest musical libraries in the world. He is also the author of several scholarly books on the history of music in America. He is eminently well qualified in every way for the task of piloting such a new venture in the sea of musical exegesis as this new quarterly, which, by reason of its seriousness of purpose, its scholarly tone, and its freedom from the bane of artists' advertising, at once takes the lead among the musical periodicals of the time, and deserves the support of every serious-minded musician and music lover.

The foundations of the new magazine were laid months before the outbreak of the European War, and that catastrophe placed the editor under the necessity of changing the distribution of his forces and of adjusting his plans to unwelcome circumstances. While the war lasts, doubtless, articles by distinguished foreign writers will be fewer than were solicited and promised. Yet this first number, besides a good showing of articles by Americans, contains contributions by J. A. Fuller-Maitland, formerly music critic of the *London Times* and editor of "Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians"; W. H. Hadow, dean of Worcester College, Oxford, editor of "The Oxford History of Music," and author of two admirable volumes of

"Studies in Modern Music"; Francis Toye, of London, and W. J. Lawrence, of Dublin.

Among the articles by American contributors, Waldo S. Pratt, professor of history of music in the Institute of Musical Art, New York, leads off with a paper "On Behalf of Musicology," by which curious and not altogether alluring term he means a comprehensively planned science of music that shall embrace every branch of study bearing upon



MR. OSCAR G. SONNECK  
(Editor of the new *Musical Quarterly*)



music—*musical physics*, or *acoustics*, *musical psychics* (including all that is known or can be discovered about those psychological phenomena which are distinctively musical), *musical poetics* (including whatever pertains to the essential method or form of expression, regarded as a process of invention or manufacture), *musical esthetics*, *musical graphics* (including everything pertaining to notation, whether manual or mechanical), *musical technics* (including both instruments and methods of using them artistically) and *musical practics* (including all practical applications of musical art). The subdivisions under these seven divisions are legion.

T. P. Currier, of Boston, contributes thirty-five pages of pleasant chat about "Edward MacDowell as I Knew Him"—very readable reminiscences; Francis Rogers writes of "America's First Grand Opera Season," when Manuel Garcia brought his musical family to New York in 1825; there is an article on "Music Reform in the Cath-

olic Church," by H. T. Henry; one on "The Measurement of Musical Talent," by Carl E. Seashore, a well-known psychologist and inventor of psychological instruments; and William J. Henderson, music critic of the New York *Sun*, has a paper on "The Function of Musical Criticism."

Mr. William Henry Hadow's paper on "Some Aspects of Modern Music" is the work of a scholar who knows how to write, and write gracefully. Moreover, he writes as a wise man,—a man of good, sound sense. He is in sympathy with real progress, wherever found, but he has no sympathy for fads, poses, or mere sensationalism. At the present day, he finds, because of the extreme rapidity with which the language and idiom of music have altered during the last twenty years, it appears as if the whole musical problem were being restated; as if the very principles of the art were called in question; as if its vocabulary were being written afresh and its most vital distinctions dismissed as obsolete.

## ETHNIC DARWINISM

THE "ethnic tableau" of the war as approved by Professors Münsterberg and Albert Bushnell Hart is set forth in a terse article in the current issue of the *Unpopular Review*:

These distinguished scholars share with many diplomats and numerous nobodies the notion of a world divided into superior and inferior races who of necessity are foes. . . .

The advocates of this sort of cataclysmic ethnology speak a common language which explains the most complicated international relations with elementary lucidity. In the present conflict, for example, France, belonging to a decadent race—Latin races are by definition decadent—has logically followed a privateering course of revenge. Latin races are short-sighted, but must act according to their lights, pending their predestined passing off the stage.

England's case arouses some surprise. Having been founded by good Teutons, Angles and Saxons, she amazingly misses the point that her place is at Germany's shoulder in the second line of defense against the Slav, who is fundamentally an Asiatic and incidentally a Cossack.

Of course, Italy also having for a generation enjoyed treaty privileges with two Teutonic allies might fairly have been expected to rise above the Latin irresponsibility in the present emergency. In her gradual and fated decline it would clearly be better for her to ground arms before the Teuton than before the Asiatic.

The status of the great mass of Slavs in the Austrian Empire is strangely neglected by these experts in world politics. Apparently there has been some Teutonic laying on of hands which has

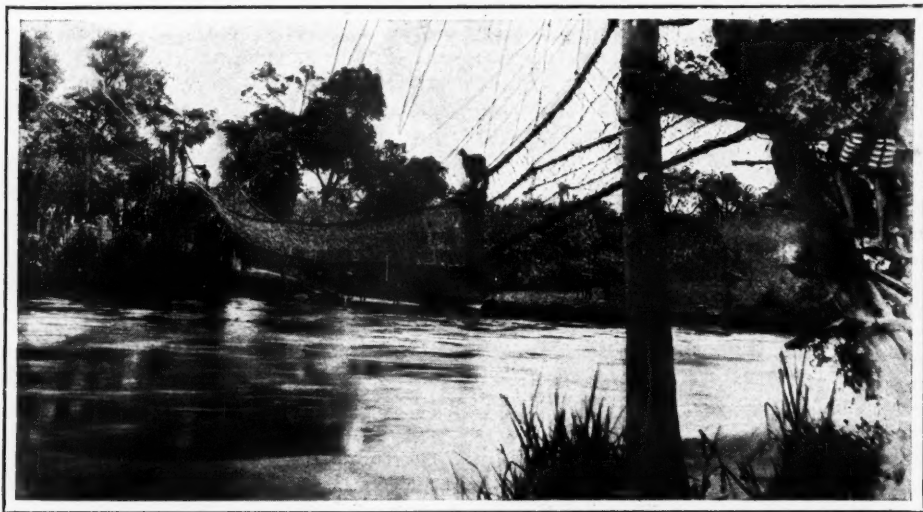
effectually de-Asiaticized the Austrian Slavs, so that they may appropriately slay their still Asiatic cousins.

This application of the law of the survival of the fittest is Ethnic Darwinism. One nation is another's keeper at the subordinate nation's expense. Any intimation of equality means that the struggle for existence must begin over again.

Houston Stewart Chamberlain and others with much ability have driven home the conviction that purity of race is all, and that only pure races are politically to be reckoned with, and that these are always in the long run competitive to the point of war. Now the very conception of pure race is biologically absurd, as applied to any of the existent great nations.

The Basques, the Bretons, the Irish, the Highland Scots, the Jews, the Finns, the Scandinavians, and possibly a moiety of the Slavs and Magyars are about the only races in Europe that a scientific ethnologist would recognize as pure. England, France, Germany, Italy, Austria, even Russia, are highly hybridized, and very much for the good of those nations. When we speak of Teuton and Slav, we mean nothing more than masses politically united who think and feel more or less in unison under teaching more or less competent. Their good thinking can be encouraged, their bad thinking corrected, under wise instruction. Is it wise instruction to teach these nations that their aims and ambitions are fatally incompatible, the culture of one requiring the inferiority of the rest, the rise of any, imperiling those who have already attained?

## A SUSPENSION BRIDGE OF VINES



SUSPENSION BRIDGE BUILT BY NATIVES ACROSS THE LUBEFU RIVER, CENTRAL AFRICA

IN the August, 1914, number of this REVIEW (page 231) there was reproduced a photograph of a wooden cantilever bridge built by Indians of British Columbia. This picture was seen by the Rev. J. A. Stockwell, an American missionary of the Methodist Episcopal Church South, who is stationed at Lusambo, Congo Belge, Africa. Thinking that the REVIEW's readers would be interested in the bridge-building efforts of the natives of Central Africa, Mr. Stockwell took the trouble to send us photographs of a suspension bridge across the Lubefu River, about 1500 miles from the sea.

This bridge, as will be seen from the photographs that are reproduced herewith, was constructed wholly of vines of a very tough, fibrous nature. The sides are nearly five feet high, and join at the bottom, forming a sort of V-

shaped trough. Mr. Stockwell states that the bridge has three main cables composed of twisted vines, one at the apex of the V and one at either side, with two single vines run in between on each side, and every four to six inches cross-vines are woven and tied in so as to hold the whole structure together. The bridge is further strengthened by numerous

guy vines running from different points on the bridge to the trees on either bank.

From an architectural point of view, Mr. Stockwell describes the bridge as a fine piece of work, but states that the approaches are very difficult, being nothing but crude ladders made of round poles, also tied together with vines. The river at this point is nearly 150 feet wide, with a swift current, but the bridge is frequently called upon to support as many as six natives carrying loads of from 50 to 100 pounds each.



NATIVE CROSSING THE BRIDGE

# A NEW TREATISE ON THE COSMIC RELATIONS

MR. HENRY HOLT presents in two volumes<sup>1</sup> a brilliant discussion of the most important of the phenomena and comment concerned with cosmic relations, that has been distributed through forty volumes of the investigations of the Society of Psychical Research. As Mr. Holt writes, "Cosmic Relations" is a brief term for the interactions between the Soul and the Universe, —the object of these interactions to bring about the expansion of our souls and the growth of permanent happiness.

While we are very familiar with certain relationships and reactions between our souls and the Cosmos, we are very ignorant of others; and in many of the practical-minded of us there exists a disinclination to pursue this subject lest we fall over the edge of the proven fact into the abyss of the fanciful and the groundless. Mr. Holt makes it quite clear that there is no such danger, provided we will pursue our investigations in a sane and rational spirit such as characterizes our scientific research, together with a sincere desire for proof of the expansion of human consciousness.

Out of the voluminous reports of the Society of Psychical Research, Mr. Holt has selected that which he deems most illuminating and helpful to those who are willing to believe that there is another life beyond

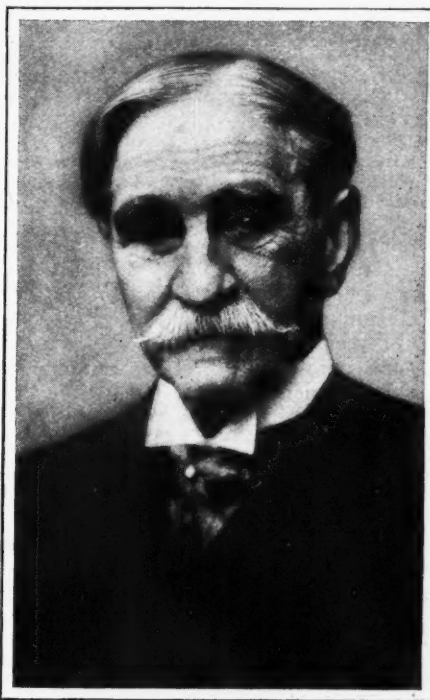
death, and that to make full use of this life we must make all possible preparation in the one which we are now living. Out of the ripeness of his knowledge and experience, he asks us to turn our faces "from Lombard Street and Wall Street, not to speak of the Savoy and the Waldorf-Astoria," to look beyond the material facts of our lives into the larger spiritual universe toward which every

fact of evolution unerringly points the way. Mr. Holt writes in the preface:

Of course no one could sanely undertake an exhaustive treatment of the subject indicated by the title of this book. What I have attempted is an outline of the evolution of the relations between the soul and the external universe, and a summary of the recognized relations that are still so immaturely evolved as to be little understood. With the latest philosophy, I have assumed a germ of consciousness in each particle of star-dust, recognizing the consciousness when it becomes obvious in the recoil of protoplasm from contact, and following the evolution up through primitive life into the soul as we know it to-day. I have made this sketch with a special view to showing that the existence of an unknown universe is a corollary of the evolution of knowl-

edge. This has often been expressed in a sentence, but not often systematically expounded and illustrated.

Mr. Holt begins our lesson in evolution with a chapter on the body, since it is the instrument through which the soul functions to reach the greater Universe. He starts with the *amaba*, that little primitive cell-



MR. HENRY HOLT, THE NEW YORK PUBLISHER, WHO, AT SEVENTY-FIVE, HAS PRODUCED A MASTERLY WORK EMBODYING THE RESULTS OF PSYCHICAL RESEARCH

<sup>1</sup> On the Cosmic Relations. By Henry Holt. Houghton Mifflin 2 vols., 989 pp. \$5.

ancestor of the Greek Athlete, and leads us up to the consideration of the nervous system of the human body, which he tells us in outline looks like a "statue of lace," and is the apparatus for "the soul's voluntary reaction with the universe." Next mind and soul are considered,—the perceptions and the intellect, the emotions and the will, and all that is interwoven in their complex activities. On the evolution of monogamy he says:

The evolution of monogamy seems, in a rough way, to accompany the evolution of beauty, intelligence and character. . . .

With mankind, the prevalence of monogamy is the most distinct test of progress, not only as a characteristic of nations, but even of social sets. At the two extremes of life, among those debased by low nutrition and impoverished sensation, monogamy languished. Where bodies are healthiest, sensations and habits nearest normal, intelligence broadest, morals highest, and sensibilities keenest and most catholic, love in its whole blessed range from parents to each other and to offspring is deepest and most enduring; there monogamy has been the chief cause of the peculiar evolution, and is itself most thoroughly evolved; and the family as the foundation for the development of the individual and the state is nearest intact. This development means the enlargement of the Cosmic Relations.

Mr. Holt goes to considerable pains to disabuse the average intelligence of its misconceptions as to "table-tipping" and other psychic phenomena. Psychic manifestations, when genuine, come from certain modes of force not generally understood; the author tentatively considers them as "*telekinetic*" and "*autokinetic*," accordingly as they act outside or through the body; and he is able to substantiate his statements with personal experiences that are remarkable and convincing. The phenomena of "dowsing" is considered; the rappings heard by Barret, Moses and Crookes, the effects produced by Palladino, Mrs. Piper, and other famous mediums, telepathy, so-called obsessions, dreams, and mediumistic visions of the future life, memory, automatic writing,—hallucinations waking and sleeping, etc. His discussion of dreams shows us how little we really know about them. He hardly agrees with Fechner, Du Prel, and Myers, who have said that dreams were created by a submerged portion of one's own wits:

Never in my dreams have I seen or heard anything extraordinary in the arts where I have some trifling capacity; while in some arts where I have no capacity at all, I have from childhood seen things more beautiful than any human being has ever made. . . . The notion that I made in my dreams the beautiful things so far beyond my capacity,—some of them beyond anybody's,—

seems ridiculous. Perhaps they "just grewed," like Topsy.

He conceives dreams as an inflow of the world-soul:

Is there an inflow from the Power greater than ourselves, which not only as motion does our breathing, circulating and secreting, but as mind does our dreaming, feeling, and thinking?

Mr. Holt's summing-up of the matter of our cosmic relations is in part as follows: That psychic manifestations bring to our understanding "for the first time an understandable and rational heaven," and go to prove that life in the hereafter is a continuance of life here with the trivial interruption of death. Also that it is probable that the future life will be considerably expanded as compared to this one and relieved of many of its "limitations and pains." In closing he postulates this significant question: as an argument for the future coherence and expansion of life,—one which will "weigh only with those who can find an affirmative answer."

Does the course of my life seem to conform to some plan, not mine, which is profoundly significant if I am to survive the combination called my body, and which is foolishness if I am not?

His benediction to his readers touches a note of sublimity:

Every book ought to contain things which will make its reader an inhabitant of a larger universe than he was before, and such is peculiarly the duty of any book attempting the themes of this one. Unless it has done that for you it has failed. If it has done that, though I may never know that it has, the labor in it is compensated.

And now good-bye, and thank you all for your patience. We may not meet again here for I leave soon; but whether we do or not perhaps sometime we will meet where meeting will be easier.

His long career as author, editor, and publicist has been infused by the spirit of youth, and his achievements are the result of initiative, character, and culture, combined with a great flow of dynamic energy, the whole guided and impelled by the ideal of the brotherhood of men. He was born in Baltimore in 1840, graduated from Yale and the Columbia Law School, and soon ventured modestly into a publishing business which afterward became "Henry Holt & Co." His work includes studies in economics and civics and two novels. The *Unpopular Review*, a quarterly launched in January, 1914, met with an instant and deserved success. This journal adopts an attitude of cautious optimism in considering questions of public weal.



# THE NEW BOOKS

## RELIGION

"THE OPEN DOOR,"<sup>1</sup> by Hugh Black, is a book of inspiration and faith-inspiration to do our best, and faith in the illimitable bounty of God. The title suggests a certain attitude toward life. In youth we find many doors open; that they ever seem to close is because of our bondage to the flesh; there are always just as many "open doors" to the free spirit. Death is the last doorway, the entrance into the House of Many Mansions, and faith must support us in the belief that just as we needed life, so we also need death for the perfection of our individuality.

"The Reconstruction of the Church,"<sup>2</sup> by Paul M. Strayer, seeks to find a remedy for the decadence of religious influence as exercised by the Church to-day. He finds that it is suffering "under the law of diminishing returns." We have invested more energy, more heart, mind, and soul in it than ever before and with less return. What can we do; how can we bring religion back to the Church? This is the question Mr. Strayer's book answers with a discussion of helpful suggestions. Efficiency must be introduced, methods must be adapted to modern industrialism; we must reclothe the spiritual message in new garments to make it fit the needs of the modern world. Human differences must not be exaggerated and fostered by denominational differences, for only by the Church aiming steadily at the brotherhood of man as taught by Jesus Christ can it regain its lost power and persuasiveness.

It is related that on John Wesley's first voyage to America, he was astonished, during a storm at sea, by the calmness of the Moravians who were on board. Their religious experience had given them such fixedness in God that they were convinced that not even the terrors of the sea could harm them. The psychology of this kind of religious experience and that of the many kinds that are distributed because of natural selection, among the various religious sects, is analyzed in a careful study of "The Psychological Aspects of Christian Experience,"<sup>3</sup> by Richard H. K. Gill. He considers sin to be a "mal-hypertrophy of attention," and that there are as many ways of awakening this attention and focusing it in the "dynamic center of psychic activity" as there are different types of human beings. One man may find salvation in meditation, another in communion with Nature, a third in the orthodox form of the established religion of his country. All are equally right. If the "sawdust trail" of a Billy Sunday arouses a man's wavering conscience and strengthens his good resolves, why, that is right, too. The great danger lies in the emotionalism of religious experience, the danger that the reaction will

plunge the soul back into more profound abysses than those from whence it climbed. Religion, to bring forth righteousness, must take harmonious possession of mind, heart, and will.

Mr. Arthur Christopher Benson's new volume, "The Orchard Pavilion,"<sup>4</sup> will prove of unusual interest to the thoughtful. Three young men take a summer holiday in an old farmhouse in Gloucestershire and meet in the orchard pavilion to discuss their views of life. Each young man represents a different type of mind,—the first the materialistic, the second the artistic, the third the religious. Thirty years later one of the three men buys the farmstead for a summer residence, and once more the three men meet. The first has become a lawyer, the second an author, and the third a clergyman. On the day following their second discussion, the clergyman preaches a sermon which reveals the purpose of Mr. Benson's book,—to impress upon us in these troublous times, when prejudice animates our deeds in spite of good intentions, that "the one and only test of our nearness to God is the way we feel about other people."

An excellent informational book for those who are interested in Sunday-school work is a sprightly narrative written by Frank L. Brown, "A Sunday-School Tour of the Orient,"<sup>5</sup> which describes the experiences of twenty-nine religious workers on a trip through Japan, Korea, and China, undertaken for the purpose of increasing the facilities for the education of children in the Christian religion in the Far East. It is tersely written and copiously illustrated. The frontispiece is a photograph of Henry J. Heinz, whose kindness and generosity made the trip possible.

Several lectures and sermons by the zealous English Congregational theologian, Dr. Sylvester Horne, whose gifts attracted the attention of intellectuals in England and in this country, are published in a volume entitled "The Romance of Preaching,"<sup>6</sup> Dr. Bridgman, editor of *The Congregationalist*, writes of his achievements: "As preacher, organizer, author, pastor, and friend, Sylvester Horne did a work in his short life that in volume and quantity made him one of the most remarkable religious leaders of the age."

Mr. Henry B. Carré presents in "Paul's Doctrine of Redemption,"<sup>7</sup> a philosophical interpretation of the teachings of Christ as taught by the Apostle Paul, with the object of making clear the fact that Paul expounded the redemption of man as inseparable from that of the cosmos; or that the salvation of mankind is but a chapter of cosmical history.

<sup>1</sup> The Open Door. By Hugh Black. Revell. 224 pp. \$1.

<sup>2</sup> The Reconstruction of the Church. By Paul M. Strayer. Macmillan. 309 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>3</sup> The Psychological Aspects of Christian Experience. By Richard H. K. Gill. Sherman French. 104 pp. \$1.

<sup>4</sup> The Orchard Pavilion. By Arthur C. Benson. Putnam. 136 pp. \$1.

<sup>5</sup> A Sunday-School Tour of the Orient. By Frank L. Brown. Doubleday. Page. 374 pp. \$1.

<sup>6</sup> The Romance of Preaching. By Sylvester Horne. Revell. 302 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>7</sup> Paul's Doctrine of Redemption. By Henry B. Carré. Macmillan. 175 pp. \$1.25.

## POLITICS, SOCIOLOGY, ECONOMICS

MR. SAMUEL M'CORD CROTHERS' "Meditations on Votes for Women" urges suffrage to American gentlewomen as a duty to be undertaken solemnly with a deep sense of personal responsibility, for the sake of the advancement of civilization. He finds that the driving force of the movement for equal suffrage is not feminism but Democracy, and he comments crisply that women in expressing their opinions "should be allowed to be as unobtrusive as men." Against the charge that women do not take large or disinterested views of public questions, he brings the accusation that men,—including crowned heads,—do not take large or disinterested views of public questions. But as all public questions must be entrusted to human beings Mr. Crothers is in favor of considering women as human beings and educating them to bear their full responsibility as such.

Mrs. Beatrice Forbes-Robertson Hale, in "What Women Want,"<sup>2</sup> gives a readable, well-reasoned, sympathetic exposition of modern feminism. She defines feminism as "that part of the progress of democratic freedom which applies to women"; and in her analysis of this new freedom for women steers clear of the stragglers who wander on unexplored bypaths of the feminist movement, and avoids the violent radicals, in order to bring to the average woman (and also to the average man) a safe and sane interpretation of the new-old urge that stirs modern women. After an interesting discussion of the years behind the woman of to-day, Mrs. Hale launches into a straightforward analysis of the things women really want, sometimes blindly, sometimes intelligently. After all has been said they resolve into "love and work," as Mrs. Hale aptly phrases it. Love woman must have; it is her heritage, and work she must have, too, in order that her love shall not languish and turn into mere instinct. She does not pretend that the sudden "infusion of women into the world's affairs" will instantly have the result of bringing about a reign of "sweetness and light." Man has his special genius, that of creation and discovery; woman that of ordering and guarding. Man will, as the result of woman's cooperation, rid himself of many burdens such as that of militarism; woman will rise to full appreciation of the social

mother-power she will be able to exercise once she has been trained shoulder to shoulder with man.

Mr. Frederic C. Howe, who is Commissioner of Immigration at the port of New York, has been for many years a student of city life and administration at home and abroad. "The City the Hope of Democracy," "The British City: the Beginnings of Democracy," and "European Cities at Work" are three of Mr. Howe's books that have been widely read and have exerted much influence towards the formation of a healthy public opinion in America on municipal questions. His latest work, "The Modern City and Its Problems,"<sup>3</sup> sums up his message in that it shows in a comprehensive way what European cities are doing for the populations under their jurisdiction, and reveals at the same time the backwardness of American municipal governments. However, it is distinctly constructive criticism that Mr. Howe offers, and several of his chapters set forth in a striking and suggestive way the progress that has been made by American cities within recent years. The character changes in the direction of commission and city-manager systems of government have been studied by Mr. Howe to good purpose and his observations under these heads are instructive. His conclusions are optimistic.

"Corporate Promotions and Reorganizations,"<sup>4</sup> in the "Harvard Economic Studies," is a remarkable compendium of the essential facts in recent experiences of "Big Business." The author, Dr. Arthur S. Dewing, never obtrudes his personal opinions or theories, but confines his task to a marshaling of data. He describes both successful and unsuccessful attempts at reorganization, relating in detail such episodes in financial history as the promotion and failure of the National Cordage Company, the reorganizations of the cordage consolidations; the promotion, collapse, and reorganization of the Asphalt trust, and the ups and downs of the United States Realty and Construction Company, the American Bicycle Company, the United States Shipbuilding Company, and other well-known organizations. This material, which must have been gathered at a vast expenditure of time and effort, is invaluable as a basis of legislation on the trust question.

## STORIES FROM LIFE

ENTHUSIASM, fire, sincerity, and the capacity for intense emotion exhaled from the soul of Serbia,—a country characterized by one of its own statesmen as the most poetic of the Slavonic nations. The psychology of Serbia, as it finds expression in the history of the Serbs, their folklore, epic poetry, ballads, superstitions, and customs, is pre-

sented in "Hero-Tales and Legends of the Serbians,"<sup>5</sup> by Woislau M. Petrovitch. The former Serbian minister at the Court of St. James's, Chedo Miyatovich, has written the explanatory preface. The illustrations are exceptional; they consist of thirty-two exquisite color plates by William Sewell and Gilbert James vividly picturing Serb life.

To rescue the color and atmosphere of a forgotten epoch of American civilization from oblivion and restore it to us in all the freshness

<sup>1</sup> Meditations on Votes for Women. By Samuel M'Cord Crothers. Houghton Mifflin. 81 pp. \$1.

<sup>2</sup> What Women Want. By Mrs. Beatrice Forbes-Robertson Hale. Stokes. 307 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>3</sup> The Modern City and Its Problems. By Frederic C. Howe. Scribners. 390 pp. \$1.50.

<sup>4</sup> Corporate Promotions and Reorganizations. By Arthur S. Dewing. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. 616 pp. \$2.50.

<sup>5</sup> Hero-Tales and Legends of the Serbians. By Woislau M. Petrovitch. George G. Harrap & Co., London. 393 pp. 15 shillings net.

and charm of its actual existence can only be compared to the inspiring task of the archeologist, who, digging in the sands of some ancient soil, uncovers the glorious perfection of an antique statue, which but for his toil had been utterly lost to the world. Gertrude Atherton has restored to us Spanish California, the vanished Latin civilization in America, in her two splendid stories "Rezanov" and "The Doomswoman," now republished under the title "Before the Gringo Came."<sup>1</sup> "Rezanov" is the romance of a Russian soldier of fortune who dreamed of a mighty empire on the Pacific. "The Doomswoman" brings us a wonderful heroine, beautiful Chonita Iturbide y Moncada, the ill-starred girl of noble birth, whose love for Diego Estenga, the scion of a rival house, brings her great romance at the price of inevitable tragedy.

Fifteen years ago several young women went into the "moonshine" region of the Kentucky mountains and spent successive summers instructing the mountaineers in simple medicine and hygiene, singing, sewing, kindergarten work, and the art of friendly relationship with one's neighbors. These young women finally started a settlement school at Hindman which has grown and prospered until one hundred children live in it and two hundred more attend day school. These children are trained especially for the life they must lead in their mountain homes. Social service work is carried on and a market is found for the basketry and the weaving done by the women. The nursing and hospital work also deserves special mention. A story of an incident of this work, "Sight to the Blind,"<sup>2</sup> written originally for the *Century Magazine* by Lucy Furnam, is now published in book form with an introduction by Ida Tarbell. It is a beautiful interpretation of "the

proper application of the Settlement idea," and most inspiring to those who are really anxious to serve humanity.

James Stephens is the latest Celtic genius to make a flare in the literary firmament. He first came to attention as a poet with two volumes of unusual verse, "Insurrections," and "The Hill of Vision." A delightful book followed the poetry—"The Crock of Gold," a naive, whimsical medley of personalities, poetry, romance and philosophy—a work especially esteemed by his own countrymen. After this came "Here Are the Ladies," "The Threepenny Bit," that moved his admirers to tears and laughter, and now we have a kind of sequel to the last named work in "The Demi-Gods."<sup>3</sup>

Patsy McCann and his daughter Mary are "trampers." They go up and down the roads of Erin with a donkey and a cart, carefree, and concerned only with a "hunt for food." Down upon the wayfarers descend three angels with crowns and shimmering wings and silken robes of "scarlet, gold and purple." They wish to try tramping for a change with Patsy McCann and the donkey cart, so their grandeur is buried under a tree and Patsy pilfers some clothes as dilapidated as his own for their use. Then the strangely assorted company pass on to bewildering adventures. For those who like to discover hidden wisdom in their reading, it is well to say that the angels tell stories of hell and heaven and all the mysteries of time and space. "Fiaun was an Archangel when he was in his own place; Caeltia was a Seraph, and Art was a Cherub. An Archangel is a counselor and a guardian; a Seraph is one who accumulates knowledge; a Cherub is one who accumulates love. In heaven these were their denominations."

## POETRY AND THE DRAMA

THE valuation of poetry is largely a matter of personal taste. The poem that stirs the depths of emotion in one man may impress the next as a piece of cold verbiage, inasmuch as our appreciations depend largely upon our reflexes, and our reflexes upon the potentiality of our imagination and the scope of our experience. Therefore the business of making a pleasing anthology of the year's best verse is not an easy task, even if one only takes into consideration the consensus of cultivated taste. Mr. William Stanley Braithwaite succeeds admirably in this difficult undertaking. His "Anthology of Magazine Verse for 1914"<sup>4</sup> surpasses its predecessors in the excellence of its poetry, and also in other literary matters contained therein,—the valuable criticism and the interpretative summaries of recent books of verse.

If in the past aught could be brought against Mr. Braithwaite's choices of verse, it might be said that through paucity of our productive range,

he selected a preponderance of purely intellectual poetry that was at times cloying and stifling. This year, owing to the change that has come over the American Muse, we find in the pages of his *Anthology* a return to simplicity and the primitive. We have the roaring "clang-a-ranga" of Vachel Lindsay, the vigorous *vers libre* of James Oppenheim, and the artless story-telling of Conrad Aiken, together with an abundance of other stirring verse, that somehow clears the mind and frees the emotional centers that have become clogged with the finely drawn subtleties of intellectualism. Mr. Braithwaite notes several items of interest; that the quality of American poetry steadily improves; that it can,—still keeping the super-music of true song,—deal with realities; also that the best war poems have so far been written by American poets.

He reminds the newspapers and periodicals of their stewardship in regard to reviewing the books of poetry they receive. Poetry,—so often the voice of spiritual reality,—should not be dismissed with perfunctory comment or supercilious criticism. His summaries are divided into five sections; ten books of poetry for a small library, twenty-five for a larger library, a supplementary list of significant books of verse, forty books about poetry, and twenty-five additional volumes that deal with technique, theory, history

<sup>1</sup> Before the Gringo Came. By Gertrude Atherton. Stokes, 369 pp. \$1.35.

<sup>2</sup> Sight to the Blind. By Lucy Furnam. Macmillan, pp. \$1.

<sup>3</sup> The Demi-Gods. By James Stephens. Macmillan, 316 pp. \$1.30.

<sup>4</sup> Anthology of Magazine Verse for 1914. By William Stanley Braithwaite. Issued by W. S. B., Cambridge, Mass. 205 pp. \$1.50.

of poetry, and matters concerned with the lives, letters and personalities of poets. The ten best books of the year as selected by Mr. Braithwaite are as follows: "The East I Know," by Paul Claudel; "The Single Hound," by Emily Dickinson; "Collected Poems," by Norman Gale; "Georgian Poetry," edited by E. M.; "The Congo and Other Poems," by N. Vachel Lindsay; "The Present Hour," by Percy Mackaye; "The Complete Poems of S. Weir Mitchell," "Songs for the New Age," by James Oppenheim; "The Grand Canyon and Other Poems," by Henry VanDyke, and "The Flight and Other Poems," by George Woodberry.

Mr. Henry Herbert Knibbs knows the West. Incidentally he knows men and horses and the combination gives us real thrills in "Songs of the Outlands,"<sup>1</sup> a book of hearty swinging ballads that are now colorful with the joy of the untrammelled life of desert and plain, and now poignant with the tang of bitter experience. Mr. Knibbs is a second Bret Harte in his portrayal of the "rough diamond" kind of man, who has played the major rôle in the subjugation of the West. "Out There Somewhere" is a ballad calculated to produce wanderlust in the heart of the most home-keeping office toiler; "The Mule Skinner" and "When the Ponies Come to Drink" are capital lyrics. "The Walking Man," a pathetic tale of a cowboy who does penance for the murder of his pony by walking the rest of his life, will bring mists to the eyes of any lover of horses. The best thing about these songs is the impulse to freedom that they infiltrate in the blood. The reader feels at least for a whole minute that he can take "any road at any time for anywhere."

The "Lays of Sergeant Con"<sup>2</sup> are breezy, ramping

rhymes, chiefly refreshing because of their swift flashings of humorous and satirical insight into the social and moral reactions of those who govern and those who are governed in the Philippine Islands. They are the work of Norbert Lyons, associate editor of the Manila *Daily Bulletin*, and were first published in the columns of that paper.

"Flood Tide,"<sup>3</sup> a book of sympathetic verse by Carolyn E. Haynes, has had considerable local appreciation. There is a desirable boldness and freedom in the poems, but often obvious poetic imagery mars a fine inspiration. "Pain," "The Toiler," and "Alone" have strength and poetic certainty, and "The Mirror" is a pleasant bit of ironical badinage.

"The Great Galeoto,"<sup>4</sup> the masterpiece of the Spanish dramatist, Jose Echegaray, translated by Jacob Fasset, is now added to the publications of the Contemporary Dramatists Series. It is the most trenchant and widely read of Echegaray's work,—a play in which the leading character cannot appear because the leading character is,— "Society." It depicts the evil workings of a cruel slander upon the lives of innocent persons and reiterates the ancient admonition,— "speak no evil, hear no evil, see no evil." Galeoto was the go-between for Guinevere and Lancelot; Echegaray makes society the "Great Galeoto," and fastens a weight of responsibility upon each member of the social mass. The dramatist has been successively mathematician, statesman, and man of letters. He is eighty-one years of age, and in the last twenty-five years has written sixty plays. In 1904, the Nobel prize for literature was divided between Echegaray and the Provençal poet, Mistral.

## PHILOSOPHY

"EROS,"<sup>5</sup> by Emil Lucka, translated by Ellie Schleussner, attempts to philosophize upon the development of human love between man and woman throughout the ages. Idealistic love is shown to have evolved from the sex instinct of savages and from the sensuous love of the civilized races of antiquity, to the high pinnacle of romantic, mystical, and metaphysical love that to-day is most often found,—as Dr. Lucka thinks,—in the Germanic race, in which he includes the British and North American peoples. The longing for "synthesis" he finds growing more powerful. "The yearning for the absolute, for perfection, no longer separating and selecting, but embracing man as a whole, annihilating body and soul in a higher intuition, the longing for mutual self-surrender, for giving and receiving an undivided self, is growing stronger and stronger." And he adds to this the conclusion at which all mystics arrive: that great love cannot find its consummation on earth, be-

cause the will and longing of love ever reaches "beyond the attainable to the infinite." To the mature mind this book will bring the graciousness of a better understanding of love and life.

If a man wishes to know himself he has only to equip himself with proper knowledge, according to the physiognomists, and look in a mirror, where he can read the indelible writing that his habitual thoughts and deeds have traced upon his features. It is in a measure true that a single peculiarity synthesizes our destiny, so radically have the accustomed acts of our lives altered our features, changed our manners and carriage, and modified the tones of our voices. By way of paradox, it has been said that "Cæsar was assassinated because he was ashamed of being bald; Napoleon ended his days in St. Helena because he was fond of the poems of Ossian; Louis Philippe abdicated the throne as he did because he carried an umbrella," etc. "Character Reading Through Analysis of the Features,"<sup>6</sup> by Gerald Fosbrooke, is an excellent work for the beginner in this fascinating field of research. It is published with fifty-six original drawings by Carl Bohnen.

<sup>1</sup> Songs of the Outlands. By Henry Herbert Knibbs. Houghton Mifflin. 74 pp. \$1.25.

<sup>2</sup> Lays of Sergeant Con. By Norbert Lyons. The Times Press, Manila, P. I. 117 pp. 2 pesos.

<sup>3</sup> Flood Tide. By Carolyn E. Haynes. Badger. 85 pp. \$1.

<sup>4</sup> The Great Galeoto. By Jose Echegaray. Richard Badger. 202 pp. 75 cents.

<sup>5</sup> Eros. By Emil Lucka. Putnam. 379 pp. \$1.75.

<sup>6</sup> Character Reading Through Analysis of the Features. By Gerald Fosbrooke. Putnam. 193 pp. \$2.50.



# CLASSIFIED LISTS OF RECENT PUBLICATIONS

## BOOKS RELATING TO THE WAR

**Austria-Hungary and the War.** By Ernest Ludwig. New York: Ogilvie Publishing Company. 220 pp. \$1.10.

A statement of the Dual Monarchy's case by the Austrian Consul at Cleveland, with a preface by Ambassador Dumba, details of the Serajevo trial, and a description of conditions in Bosnia and Herzegovina from the Austrian viewpoint.

**The Nations at War.** By L. Cecil Jane. Dutton. 228 pp. \$1.

An optimistic forecast of the war's results, from the standpoint of the Allies.

**The War and Democracy.** By R. W. Seton-Watson, J. Dover Wilson, Alfred E. Zimmerman and Arthur Greenwood. Macmillan. 390 pp. 80 cents.

In this volume four British writers present their views of the new responsibilities that have been placed upon the British democracy by the war.

**Life in a German Crack Regiment.** By Baron von Schlicht (Count von Baudissin). Dodd, Mead. 320 pp. \$1.

An exposure of the personal life of members of the German military caste, as represented in the official personnel of the "Golden Butterflies," a regiment exclusively officered by the Prussian nobility.

**America and the World War.** By Theodore Roosevelt. Scribner's. 277 pp. 75 cents.

A book made up of syndicate and magazine articles by Colonel Roosevelt on the subject of American preparedness. From several of these articles the REVIEW OF REVIEWS has already quoted.

**Germany's War Mania.** By the German Emperor, the German Crown Prince, Dr. V. Bethmann-Hollweg, Prince von Bülow, General von Bernhardt, General von der Goltz, General von Clausewitz, Professor Treitschke and Professor Delbrück. Dodd, Mead. 272 pp. \$1.

This is an English attempt to present "the Teutonic point of view as officially stated by Germany's leaders." It is a collection of speeches and writings.

**Alsace and Lorraine from Cæsar to Kaiser, 58 B.C.-1871 A.D.** By Ruth Putnam. Putnam. 208 pp. \$1.25.

A connected sketch of the two provinces that again form a storm-center in the contentions of the great European powers.

**India's Fighters: Their Mettle, History and Services to Great Britain.** By Saint Nihal Singh. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Company. 252 pp., ill. 85 cents.

A stirring and picturesque recital of the deeds of a body of warriors who are now for the first time engaged in battle on European soil.

**England, Germany, and Europe.** By James Wycliffe Headlam. Macmillan. 24 pp. 4 cents.

**Britain and Turkey: The Causes of the Rupture.** By Sir Edward Cook. Macmillan. 31 pp. 4 cents.

**An Englishman's Call to Arms.** Macmillan. 4 pp. 2 cents.

**The Economic Strength of Great Britain.** By Harold Cox. Macmillan. 8 pp. 2 cents.

A series of brochures and appeals by eminent British publicists.

## BIOGRAPHY

**The Story of Wendell Phillips.** By Charles Edward Russell. Chicago. Charles H. Kerr & Company. 185 pp. Fifty cents.

A Socialist's analysis of the great anti-slavery agitator's inspiring career.

**Personal Memoirs of John H. Brinton.** Neale. 361 pp. \$2.

The life history of one of the most distinguished surgeons in the federal army during the Civil War. An introductory note was supplied by the late Dr. Weir Mitchell.

**Life of Turner Ashby.** By Thomas A. Ashby. Neale. 275 pp. \$1.50.

A biography of the famous Confederate cavalry leader who was killed in the second year of the Civil War while in command of all the cavalry in the "Army of the Valley" (Virginia troops).

**Sir John French: An Authentic Biography.** By Cecil Chisholm. Stokes. 152 pp. 50 cents.

A timely sketch of the man who is characterized by Sir Evelyn Wood as "the driving force of tactical instruction in the British Army."

**The Life of Friedrich Nietzsche.** By Daniel Halévy. Macmillan. 368 pp. \$1.25.

A convenient translation of the biography by Halévy which is based on the more elaborate work of Madame Förster-Nietzsche. Introduction by T. M. Kettle.

**Life of Benjamin Disraeli.** By William Flavelle Monypenny and George Earle Buckle. Macmillan. Vol. III (1846-1855). 591 pp., ill. \$3.

The third volume of Disraeli's life covers the important period of British politics culminating in the Crimean War.

**Memories of Forty Years.** By Princess Catherine Radziwill. Funk & Wagnalls. 357 pp., ill. \$3.75.

Anecdotes of such representative English statesmen as Asquith, Morley, Winston Churchill, and Lord Rosebery; of Moltke and Hohenlohe among the Germans, and Tolstoy and Witte among the Russians.

**Makers of America: Franklin, Washington, Jefferson, Lincoln.** By Emma Lilian Dana. New York: Immigrant Publication Society. 205 pp. 75 cents.

Brief biographies prepared for the use of the foreigner in our night schools and libraries as a second or third book in English.

**Sir George Etienne Cartier, Bart.: His Life and Times.** By John Boyd. Macmillan. 439 pp., ill. \$5.

This biography of one of Canada's greatest statesmen is really what its sub-title indicates,—a political history of Canada from 1814 until 1873, embracing the period of federation.

**A Walloon Family in America.** Two vols. By Mrs. Robert W. de Forest. Houghton Mifflin. 705 pp., ill. \$5.

A most interesting narrative of the achievements of several generations of de Forests in the new world. It is far more than a mere genealogy.

#### ECONOMICS AND POLITICS

**The Anthracite Coal Combination in the United States.** By Eliot Jones. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. 261 pp. \$1.50.

A study not only of the trust movement in its ordinary aspects, but as complicated by questions of railroad control and the ownership of natural resources.

**Conciliation and Arbitration in the Coal Industry of America.** By Arthur E. Sufferin. Houghton Mifflin. 376 pp. \$2.

One of the Hart, Schaffner & Marx prize essays, describing the methods of voluntary settlement of disputes in the coal industry. There is a chapter on the experience of Great Britain.

**Problems of Community Life: An Outline of Applied Sociology.** By Seba Eldridge. Crowell. 180 pp. \$1.

An outline, or syllabus, of topics related to the improvement of working and living conditions in New York.

**The Social Commonwealth.** By Bernard A. Rosenblatt. New York: Lincoln Publishing Corporation. 189 pp. \$1.25.

A plan by which the individual may be assured of the necessities of life, while the community is enabled to secure an economic surplus that may be utilized for social progress and a better communal life.

**The Abolition of Poverty.** By Jacob H. Hollander. Houghton Mifflin. 122 pp. 75 cents.

An essay by the Professor of Political Economy at Johns Hopkins University, who believes that "the essential causes of poverty are determinable

and its considerable presence unnecessary." He likens poverty to preventable diseases.

**Neighbors: Life Stories of the Other Half.** By Jacob A. Riis. Macmillan. 209 pp., ill. \$1.25.

Mr. Riis vouched for the truth of these stories. "It is as pictures from the life in which they and we, you and I, are partners, that I wish them to make their appeal to the neighbor who lives but around the corner and does not know it."

**The Middle West Side.** By Otho G. Cartwright. **Mothers Who Must Earn.** By Katharine Anthony. New York: Survey Associates, Inc. 223 pp., ill. \$2.

Admirable studies of labor and living conditions in a part of New York City that has never been much exploited by writers on social reform. Miss Pauline Goldmark is directing this investigation, the funds being supplied by the Russell Sage Foundation.

**Boyhood and Lawlessness. The Neglected Girl.** By Ruth S. True. New York: Survey Associates, Inc. 143 pp., ill. \$2.

In this volume many striking facts are presented relating to the New York boy gangster and his sister.

**Doing Us Good and Plenty.** By Charles Edward Russell. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Company. 172 pp. 50 cents.

Mr. Russell is regarded by his fellow Socialists as one of the most popular American exponents of their cult. His publishers announce his present volume as "the best American book of Socialist propaganda yet published."

**Capital.** By George L. Walker. Boston: Duke-  
low & Walker Company. 64 pp. 15 cents.

A vigorous defense of capitalism by the editor of the Boston *Commercial*.

**The Individual and the Social Gospel.** By Shailer Mathews. New York: Missionary Movement of the United States and Canada. 84 pp. 25 cents.

A brief text-book of "applied Christianity."

**Drift and Mastery: An Attempt to Diagnose the Current Unrest.** By Walter Lippman. Kennerley. 334 pp. \$1.50.

A volume made up of shrewd, clear-sighted discussions of current social and economic problems.

**The Creation of Wealth.** By J. H. Lockwood. Cincinnati: The Standard Publishing Company. 225 pp. \$1.

A discussion of modern business problems from a conservative standpoint.

**Secrets of Personal Culture and Business Power.** By Bernard Meador. New York: David Williams Company. 161 pp. \$2.

A series of articles addressed to the American business man and intended "to interest, to entertain, and to intensify the desire to know; a desire to begin the study of mental culture and the acquirement of personal and business power."

**Business Administration.** By Edward D. Jones. New York: The Engineering Magazine. 275 pp. \$2.

The new profession that has to do with "the administration of manufacturing and operating companies under modern conditions" is recognized in this work. The underlying scientific principles are analyzed.

**Money and Banking.** By John Thom Holdsworth. Appleton. 439 pp. \$2.

The first comprehensive text-book of the subject to reproduce and analyze the provisions of the Federal Reserve Act. The author of the work is dean of the School of Economics and Professor of Finance at the University of Pittsburgh.

**Sizing Up Uncle Sam.** By George Fitch. Stokes. 238 pp. \$1.

It would not be advisable to leave a newly-arrived foreigner alone with this book for any length of time, but the dyed-in-the-wool American may be safely entrusted with it. His sense of humor will protect him and help him to see his own foibles.

**Municipal Charters.** By Nathan Matthews. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. 210 pp. \$2.

A discussion of the essentials of a city charter, with forms, or models, for adoption, major emphasis being laid on administrative provisions.

**Carrying Out the City Plan.** By Flavel Shurtleff in collaboration with Frederick Law Olmsted. New York: Survey Associates, Inc. 349 pp. \$2.

A treatise of the practical application of American law in the execution of city plans.

**Civic Righteousness and Civic Pride.** By Newton Marshall Hall. Sherman, French. 198 pp. \$1.25.

A discussion of civic problems from the ethical standpoint.

**The Judicial Veto.** By Horace A. Davis. Houghton Mifflin. 148 pp. \$1.

Three essays contributing to the conclusion that deciding the constitutionality of statutes is a political and not a legal function.

**The Doctrine of Judicial Review.** By Edward S. Corwin. Princeton: Princeton University Press. 177 pp. \$1.25.

An interesting presentation of the legal and historical basis of judicial review.

**The Anti-Trust Act and the Supreme Court.** By William H. Taft. Harper's. 133 pp. \$1.25.

Ex-President Taft's discussion of the decisions under the Sherman Law, with his views as to their effect on business.

**Progressive Democracy.** By Herbert Croly. Macmillan. 430 pp. \$2.

The author of "The Promise of American Life" analyzes in this new book the modern progressive democratic movement with reference to its origins, and outlines present tendencies.

**Open-Air Politics.** By Junius Jay. Houghton Mifflin. 236 pp. \$1.25.

A brilliant discussion of syndicalism and allied topics by "an American, eminent in public life and of more than national fame."

#### REFERENCE BOOKS

**The Desk Standard Dictionary of the English Language.** Abridged by James C. Fernald. Funk & Wagnalls. 894 pp., ill. \$1.50.

An abridgement of the Funk & Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary in a volume of convenient size for desk use. In the space of 900 pages 80,000 terms are defined and illustrated.

**Routledge's New Dictionary of the English Language.** Edited by Cecil Weatherly. Dutton. 1039 pp. \$1.25.

A work of English origin, although partially based on the American Webster. The editor also makes acknowledgments to the "Century Dictionary."

**Foreigner's Guide to English.** By Azniv Beshgeturian. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Company. 268 pp., ill. 60 cents.

A book designed for teaching English to foreigners in evening schools. It is based on the "object and action" method as applied by the author in the evening schools of Boston.

**Familiar Quotations.** By John Bartlett. Little, Brown. 1454 pp. \$3.

This tenth edition of a standard book of reference has been revised and enlarged by Nathan Haskell Dole, the original compiler, John Bartlett, having died ten years ago at the age of eighty-five.

**The American Whitaker Almanac and Encyclopedia for 1915.** Edited by C. W. Whitaker. Doubleday. Page. 648 pp. \$1.

An Americanized "Whitaker," containing "9000 indexed facts concerning the trade, production, population, government, and general statistics of every State in the United States.

**Foster's Complete Hoyle: An Encyclopedia of Games.** By R. F. Foster. Stokes. 701 pp., ill. \$3.

The original Hoyle wrote on comparatively few games and died more than a century ago, but his name stands to-day as a sign of authority. His successor is Mr. R. F. Foster, an expert on practically every indoor game.

**Salesmanship.** By William Maxwell. Houghton Mifflin. 234 pp. \$1.

A suggestive and vivacious treatment of a somewhat humdrum topic.

**How to Play Baseball.** By John J. McGraw. Harpers. 151 pp. 60 cents.

A standard manual for boys by one of the baseball heroes of our day.

**Who's Who 1915.** Macmillan. 2376 pp. \$3.75.

This English cyclopedia of contemporary biography has reached its sixty-seventh year of issue. The celebrities that it sketches are not confined to those of British birth, but many continental Europeans, as well as some Americans, are included.

# FINANCIAL NEWS

## I.—THE DAY OF LOW-PRICED STOCKS

**S**USPENSION of dividends on the United States Steel Corporation's \$508,302,500 common stock and the successful resumption of new bond issues on a large scale have been the main features of the month's financial news bearing directly upon the investor. Both may be traced to the war. For months all new security issues were blocked, and now that financial conditions are no longer demoralized it is no wonder that railroads, municipalities, and other corporations should flood the market with their obligations. Nearly \$20,000,000 more new bond issues were floated in this country in January than in the entire four months of August, September, October, and November.

Early in February the market had been so well cleaned up as far as the higher-grade bonds were concerned that no one could longer question the absorbing power of the public, however huge the future supply might prove to be. But history repeats itself, and after every panic or "near" panic the resumption of activity in bonds and stocks has progressed regularly from the stronger to the weaker securities. There is a time when nothing is salable. Then the best State and municipal bonds find a market, first at low prices, then at higher. Then the best railroad bonds are taken up, and before long people become intensely interested in low-priced, non-dividend paying stocks. We have now reached that stage, just as we reached it not long after the panic of 1907.

### *What Shall the Small Investor Buy?*

Where one individual will buy a single first-mortgage bond of the Pennsylvania Railroad at \$1035, which pays \$45 a year interest and is as certain to pay that interest for the remainder of its life as anything on this earth is certain, there are literally hundreds of persons who will buy, say forty shares of stock at \$25 a share, which pay no dividends and may never pay any.

There is something in human nature that craves many, many pieces of paper. Benjamin Franklin's injunction never to buy a thing only because it is cheap may be quoted in vain, even though many low-priced stocks are not even cheap in the true sense of the

word. No doubt a careful analysis would reveal that far more money has been lost in low-priced stocks than in excessively high-priced ones. The commonest reason for very low prices is a minimum of income-producing power, either actual or potential, whereas the commonest reason for very high prices is a potential income-producing power of high degree,—witness such stocks as Procter & Gamble, Sears, Roebuck & Co., Standard Oil, Singer Manufacturing, and many others.

Much testimony has recently come to hand regarding the increased buying power of the very small investor, and it is far from the purpose of this article to discourage the small investor. One recent estimate places the proportion of odd-lot dealings to total stock transactions on the Stock Exchange at 32 per cent., and it is well recognized that odd lots (those under 100 shares) are mostly of an investment nature. A broker familiar with this class of business recently said that frequently odd-lot buyers acquire one share each of five different companies, and he believes this kind of buying is changing the character of the market, tending to diminish its irregular and speculative aspect.

### *Don't Buy Anything Because It's Cheap*

But if this power of the public to absorb small lots of stock in enormous aggregates is to be rightly directed, there should be no lack of warning against the weaker, the improperly so-called "cheap" stocks. There is a happy medium in these things. It is not necessary, or perhaps always wise, to buy stocks which sell for several hundred dollars a share. But is it obviously not wiser to buy, say a share of Atchison preferred at \$98 a share to yield 5.10 per cent., or of St. Paul preferred at \$127 to yield 5½ per cent., both with their long, untarnished record, than four shares of Erie common at \$23 with no dividend record whatever and no early prospects of one?

It is thought that low-priced stocks may in the future sell higher. The further point that people can afford to buy Erie or Southern Railway common who cannot afford higher-priced stocks is utterly disingenuous, because the man who cannot afford to buy



one share of Atchison preferred at \$98 and pay for it outright, or who cannot afford to buy one \$100 bond, has no business purchasing securities anyway. He should go to a savings bank, unless his purpose is solely to gamble, in which case solicitude ceases.

Mention of Erie and Southern Railway implies no criticism of the present excellent physical and financial management of both companies. They are merely used as illustrations, reasons for the low prices of these stocks being well known. The point is that no matter how much these properties improve in the future it will take an enormous advance in the price of their common stocks, and scores of other low-priced shares, to make up for the loss in dividends for many years past. The simple fact that most buyers of non-dividend stocks forget is that only a few years of 5 per cent. interest or dividends at par, together with compound interest, on conservative, investment securities will outstrip even the most sensational stock-market advances. It is the old story of tortoise and hare.

#### *The Fortunes of "Steel Common"*

But it has been mostly in regard to United States Steel common that bankers, brokers, and financial editors have been flooded with inquiries both before and after the corporation passed its dividend on January 26. In the last three months of 1914 the corporation did not earn by \$5,606,000 even its preferred dividend, drawing upon surplus for that amount. Indeed earnings in December were so small that for an entire year at that rate interest on the company's bonds would not have been earned by \$17,000,000.

Chairman Gary said that "business conditions are now steadily, although slowly, improving, and it is hoped that the resumption of dividends may not be long deferred." Of course the steel industry picks up with great suddenness. But it took two years after the slump of 1904 to restore common stock dividends, and that slump was nothing like as terrible in the business of the company as the decline of the last year or two. In the fourteen years of its existence this corporation has paid out \$216,006,351 in dividends upon its common stock, or an average of 3 per cent. a year. This stock has varied between 8 $\frac{3}{8}$  and 91 in price. Quarterly earnings have been as high as \$45,503,705 in 1907, and as low as \$10,933,170 in 1914.

Now it is impossible to predict to what heights Steel common may rise in the next few years, or to what depths it may fall.

Irrespective of this speculative feature it is clear from the figures just adduced that the stock is not suitable for investment purposes, at least for persons who wish any peace of mind. Probably the stock will rise in the next couple of years, but with stock that originally represented only "water" and is still, and always will be, the most vulnerable portion of the capital of a company whose net earnings fluctuate up and down 400 per cent. in a few years' time, prediction must be only guesswork. Moreover, at this writing the stock is artificially held up by a system of minimum prices, and no human being knows how much it might have fallen when dividends were stopped if there had been no artificial minimum price. As it was, the market price fell twelve points in a week, or \$60,000,000.

#### *Investors' Interests*

Yet no small proportion of the owners are investors. One test is according to the length of time common stock has been held by the same persons. It is known that about one-quarter of it has been held by the same persons for the last four or five years. Another test is the number of owners of very small amounts, only a few of these being speculators. As far back as 1911 there were 2994 owners of one share, 2086 of two shares, 1287 of three shares, 604 of four shares, 2440 of five shares, 6989 of from six to ten shares, 6399 of from eleven to twenty-five shares, 4786 of from twenty-six to fifty shares, and 3478 from fifty-one to one hundred shares. Foreigners hold 1,241,128 shares of the stock. The Dutch Syndicate alone has 356,290 shares. The total number of stockholders of both classes exceeds 131,000. More than 50,000 employees own stock. Probably the actual number of common stockholders approaches 80,000, and if fully half, or even three-quarters of these are frankly speculators, nevertheless a great number of persons who would never admit to being speculators have suffered by the stoppage of dividends.

Further evidence of the present wide distribution of corporate securities and the seriousness of reducing dividends was the announcement recently when the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad cut its common-stock dividend from 6 to 5 per cent. that 15,000 stockholders hold less than twenty shares apiece, that 8231 women hold an average of thirty-six shares each, that only 200 persons own more than 1000 shares each, and that the Deutsche Bank of Berlin holds \$18,000,000 of the stock for 12,000 German citizens.

## II.—INVESTMENT INQUIRIES AND ANSWERS

### No. 619. SIX, SEVEN, AND EIGHT PER CENT. SECURITIES

I have a few thousand dollars to invest in good securities, and think perhaps you can give me the information I need. Where can I place my money so that it will pay 6 per cent. or more, and yet be a quick asset ready for use in my business if necessary? Are the securities of Southern and Western States paying 7 and 8 per cent. as safe as those of States where the rate is only 6 per cent.? Are such securities salable on short notice? Is it possible to get an absolutely safe bond yielding 8 per cent.? How is it possible to tell the honest broker from the faker?

It is difficult, even in this period of unusually high interest rates on investments, to obtain safe, quickly convertible securities to yield a full 6 per cent. For a business man, investing under circumstances such as you suggest, short-term notes, or bonds of early maturity, are probably best. In the last issue of this magazine we mentioned a few representative offerings of notes, such as the Argentine Republic 6's, Brooklyn Rapid Transit 5's, and United States Rubber 6's, yielding respectively 6.10, 5.30, and 5.60 per cent. A little inquiry among the specialists in this class of investments would yield a wider selection, and possibly discover something that would appeal to you more strongly.

We have frequently pointed out that it is impossible to draw a fair comparison in general terms between securities of a given type originating in one section of the country and yielding, say, 7 per cent., and those of the same type, originating in a different section and yielding a lower rate of income. There are a good many things other than lack of underlying security that may cause this difference in rates, especially in the category of mortgage investment, where the difference is perhaps most frequently met with. In buying mortgages you could go as high as 7 per cent. with a high average degree of assurance, but we believe that if you sought to obtain as much as 8 per cent. it would be necessary for you to exercise extremely careful discrimination. Usually the only people who go into that class of mortgages are those fitted by training and experience to exercise personally the necessary discrimination.

We should not care to go as far as to say that no safe bond could be created and sold at a price to yield as much as 8 per cent., but in all our experience we never saw one offered on such attractive terms that was not more of a speculation than an investment.

Unfortunately there seems to be no simple rule for distinguishing between the honest broker and the faker. The difficulty here is that the irresponsible folk have adopted so many of the methods of the responsible ones that the matter is one which usually has to be determined on the basis of information and experience. It may be said, however, that investors will seldom find cause to regret looking with suspicion upon the broker whose literature is devoted to telling how exorbitant percentages and extraordinary profits can be obtained.

### No. 620. NO READY RECIPE FOR MAKING SPECULATION PROFITABLE

I am able to save a thousand dollars or so a year which I want to put away for a rainy day. How would you advise me to invest it? My idea is to take advantage of big waves in the stock market; that is to say, when all stocks are low, as they seem to be at present, invest in not more than two shares each of a number of different stocks, sell out when they go up, and then invest in mortgages, which I would again turn into stocks when the market fell. This whole plan depends on a knowledge of when stocks are low and when high. No one, of course, expects to buy at the lowest and sell at the highest, but it does seem as if it should not require a very great knowledge of the market to buy and sell so as to gain at least ten points. I should very much appreciate any advice you may be able to give me, especially the names of any books on the subject.

Even if your plan were sound in theory, there are no books that would tell you how to put it into successful operation,—that is, no books that would give you a ready recipe for making that kind of speculation profitable. The "big waves" in stock-market prices of which you speak are those recognized by one of the most satisfactory theories ever evolved on the subject, namely that of Charles W. Dow. They are the prices which in the long run are controlled by intrinsic values. To make yourself a competent judge of such values would require a great deal of study and experience. And, like everyone else who has made the experiment, you would doubtless find yourself hopelessly confused at times in endeavoring to distinguish between market prices based upon such values, and the prices which are the result of the multitude of extraneous influences at work in the market from day to day and from week to week. We think perhaps if you were to read a few books like "The Work of Wall Street," "Pitfalls of Speculation," "Cycles of Speculation," and "Stock Prices: Factors in Their Rise and Fall," you might discover for yourself the dangers involved in the stock-buying side of your plan. But granting your ability to work that out satisfactorily, we think you would find it necessary to choose some form of investment other than mortgages to supplement the stock purchases. Your funds, while not tied up in stocks, would necessarily have to be so employed as to make possible their quick conversion into cash, and quick convertibility is a virtue of mortgage investment that is conspicuous by its absence. There are many mortgage bankers who make it a practise to take care of all legitimate demands of their clients for cash, either by repurchasing their holdings at a small discount to cover handling charges, or loaning money on the mortgages as collateral, but we doubt that any of them would care to meet regularly such demands as the operation of your plan would involve.

The best advice we are able to give you is to discard the idea of trying to make your savings grow through stock-market speculation, and confine your investments to the mortgages, contenting yourself with the satisfactory yield of income that is to be obtained with safety and peace of mind on that type of investment.

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